

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME LII * DECEMBER 1944 * NUMBER 10

Educational News and Editorial Comment

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COUNSELORS FOR THE RECONVERSION PERIOD

MILLIONS of men and women now anticipate personal problems associated with the reconversion period. They face either shifts in their jobs and vocations or the question of further schooling. Many will feel incapable of deciding such matters alone and will seek counsel wherever it can be found. They will not experience great difficulty in locating counsel if present plans materialize. Business, industry, community agencies, schools, colleges, the American Legion, the War Manpower Commission, Selective Service, the United States Veterans Administration, various branches of the armed forces, and many other organizations and civic and professional committees have announced their intention of providing advice for men and women who are about to end their war-related service.

All these plans presuppose a supply of adequately trained counselors,

which unfortunately does not now exist. The necessity of training counselors, of course, has been anticipated, but the problems of training an adequate supply of well-qualified counselors are nonetheless legion.

Problems of training counselors

It seems to have become a tradition in America that the solution of a problem is inherent in the identification of the difficulty. Associated with the recognition of the need for counselors is a feeling that the supply will be provided forthwith. Perhaps time will prove this feeling to be justified in fact. Nevertheless, only a sober appraisal of the difficulties involved in the effective training of counselors will prevent the widespread introduction of malpractices and the subsequent conversion into chaos of what might otherwise be an effective reconversion period. In speaking before a guidance conference held last June by the Department of Education of

the University of Chicago, Professor Forrest A. Kingsbury, secretary of the Department of Psychology of the University of Chicago, commented as follows on the problem of providing well-qualified counselors:

One of the things implied in the practice of guidance is the principle that individuals differ from one another. They differ with respect to their aptitudes, both general and specialized; their knowledges and skills; their personal qualities and modes of adjustment; their interests, values, and motives. A plan or career well suited to one person may be very badly suited to another. Consequently, one, although by no means the only, major responsibility of the counselor is to help the counselee to appraise, as accurately as possible, his personal resources and liabilities and to plan accordingly. It may fall to the counselor's lot to appraise or measure these characteristics himself; or he may take and use findings obtained by a test technician; but in either case *his* is the final responsibility for their correct utilization and interpretation.

Such appraisal requires professional knowledge, skill, and judgment of a high grade. *It is no job for an amateur.* It cannot be accomplished by rule of thumb, by looking in a book, or by giving a routine test. The efficient counselor must know how to select, administer, correlate, and interpret many and varied techniques and instruments, and especially to understand their significance and their limitations. Such instruments include not only tests of many kinds, but in addition rating techniques, interview and appraisal methods, personal, educational, and social history records, criteria of output and achievement, and as many other bits of evidence regarding personal qualification as are available. That is no amateur's job, as I shall try to show.

To appraise a person's psychological resources and liabilities necessitates that they be evaluated, not as abstract qualities, but

in terms of the demands of the concrete situations in which it is proposed to put them to use. A trait which is a potential asset for one career may be a liability for another. A degree of general aptitude sufficient for one occupation may be too low—or possibly too high—for the requirements of another. The counselor has to be acquainted, therefore, with the ascertained norms and standards for those occupations, educational programs, or other situations with which his counselee may be concerned.

In an endeavor to assist in the program of training of counselors, an Advisory Committee on Vocational Counseling, under the direction of Ernest J. Jaqua, who was then a member of the Professional and Technical Division, Bureau of Training, War Manpower Commission, prepared a bulletin entitled *The Training of Vocational Counselors*. Although the publication was prepared for, and is now distributed by, the War Manpower Commission, it is not an official expression of opinion or a statement of policy of that governmental agency. It is an expression of judgment of the Advisory Committee on Vocational Counseling and, as such, is infinitely more valuable to educators and the general public than would be an "official statement," which must be based on government rules and regulations and fully authorized by one or more laws. In order to work more effectively, the committee divided itself into subcommittees with the following assignments:

1. To prepare a description of the qualifications and duties of a vocational counselor on the basis of which a training program might be predicated.

2. To recommend training courses for various types of counselors.

3. To suggest a plan for the co-ordination of counseling services at the community level.

There may be in the mind of the reader the question of limiting the concept of counseling to "vocational counseling." In response to this anticipated query, the committee indicates its assumption "that the phrase 'vocational counseling' was most appropriate as describing the primary purpose of the committee since the counselor's ultimate goal would be to assist the returning serviceman or industrial worker in finding a satisfying and permanent vocation."

The problem of offering vocational advice is so broad that in many situations the total task of vocational guidance is broken up into several tasks, and these tasks are assigned to specialists within the general area of vocational counseling. The committee felt, however, that prospective counselors should be given training in all the phases of vocational guidance in order that they might be equipped to fit in wherever they are needed.

The basic qualifications which the committee believes a vocational counselor should possess are, therefore, comprehensive enough to include the broadest type of service which such specialists are called upon to perform. A counselor, according to the list of qualifications drawn up by the committee:

1. Must have well-rounded up-to-date knowledge of industrial and occupational trends and labor market conditions.

2. Must be experienced in the use of occupational materials developed for use in vocational counseling, such as *systematized* occupational information including occupational classifications, job descriptions, definitions, job families, and the like, as well as the interviewing aids and other working devices and materials.

3. Must be able to develop and prepare for use local occupational and training information, including data on working conditions as well as on duties and qualifications.

4. Must possess personal characteristics and skills to interview and maintain continuing counseling relationships in which the co-operation and confidence of the counselee are obtained, and in which pertinent facts and attitudes are discovered and related to a workable plan. Must have the ability to observe personal characteristics in the interview and interpret them in terms of their significance in occupational adjustment.

5. Must have a sound background in the nature of human skills, abilities, interests, and aptitudes and in scientific methods of measuring and appraising them.

6. Must have a knowledge of the functions and services of community facilities such as placement, rehabilitation, social, health, legal, and recreational services. Must be able to develop and maintain effective working relationships with representatives of such facilities.

7. Must be able to recognize various types of physical and mental disabilities and, wherever indicated, be able to make referral for special service to agencies qualified to render such service.

8. Must have a working knowledge of federal, state, and local laws and regulations affecting employment and training, including special provisions such as workmen's compensation, child-labor laws, and laws pertaining to the employment of women.

9. Must be able to develop, maintain, and use systematic case records or case studies of counselees.

10. Must be able to carry responsibilities in an organization, to work under supervision, to give supervision if necessary, and otherwise adjust to the duties of the particular position as assigned.

The qualifications which are thus stated by the committee no doubt accurately describe a professional worker who is worthy of the title of "vocational counselor"; yet by the same token they bespeak most eloquently the difficulty in preparing a sufficiently large number of such persons to meet the demand. The committee offers valuable suggestions about methods by which individuals can be trained to meet these qualifications. Several of these qualifications are difficult to attain, if, indeed, they are at all attainable. Consider, for instance, the first one listed by the committee, namely, the acquisition of "well-rounded, up-to-date knowledge of industrial and occupational trends and labor market conditions." Up-to-date information on the labor market during a reconversion period is not always obtainable even by a person skilled in the collection of such data. Fortunately there are now available better sources for obtaining data on vocational and job trends than were available following World War I or even as late as five years ago.

The article by O'Rourke, "Education and Occupational Trends," appearing in this issue of the *School Review*, is an excellent example of how a counselor can assemble data concerning occupational trends in a specific locality and thus provide useful in-

formation for all guidance workers in the school system.

There is no occasion for attempting to present in this column all the sources now available to schools and counselors for keeping abreast of trends in jobs or vocations. A few recently established services which provide valuable vocational information, however, should be commented upon in connection with counseling for the reconversion period.

Occupational data The War Manpower Commission has established a Reports and Analysis Service, which gives promise of providing up-to-date information concerning postwar opportunities in industry. The data appear on sheets designed to fit into a letter-size notebook. Statements will be made from time to time, and, although these are intended for the counselors of the United States Employment Service, they will be sent to other guidance workers who wish to receive them. The following paragraphs are quoted from the introductory remarks on the cover of the "Industry Series."

These statements, presenting in summary form basic descriptive and labor market information pertaining to a number of major industries, are designed to assist you in your counseling function. They should also have informational value to local office representatives who visit Army and Navy hospitals in their discussions with veterans who are scheduled for discharge.

Many veterans, displaced war workers, and others in need of counseling services will be interested in new industries about which they may have heard, or industries for which

their experience in the armed forces or in war industry may have fitted them. Some may wish to migrate to other areas and therefore will seek information on industries not found in the local area. These statements indicate the nature and location of the industry, the occupational structure, wages, hours, union affiliations, working conditions, and the current and postwar employment prospects of the industry.

Managing small businesses Last September, the Department of Commerce announced, through its Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the preparation of a series of books which will describe how to establish and operate a variety of small businesses and shops. These publications were suggested by the Army Education Branch, Morale Services Division, War Department. At the beginning the books will be distributed through the United States Armed Forces Institute to military personnel only, but it is the expressed hope of the Department of Commerce that later the books will be given wider distribution. The following paragraph is a part of the announcement made by the Department of Commerce concerning this project:

The Department of Commerce has had the co-operation of many trade associations in the development of this project. It is the primary purpose of this series to provide authentic information about the management problems which are encountered in establishing small businesses. It is assumed that the prospective business operator will have had the necessary technical background and experience needed to establish his own business. Consequently the books will be confined entirely to management problems. It

is expected that books will be prepared in some twenty fields. Some materials are nearing completion, but others are in the earlier stages of development.

A filing procedure In addition to the newer sources and kinds of information now being provided or planned, there is the huge volume of data concerning occupations which has for some time been available to counselors. The problem of the counselor is to have this vast quantity of occupational information, which comes in pamphlet or loose-leaf form, so accessible and so organized in his files that he and his counselees can readily locate the specific data which are needed. A 1944 publication by John R. Yale, executive editor of Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois, gives excellent aid to counselors in organizing and filing vocational information. The title of this book is *How To Build an Occupational Information Library*. With this publication can be purchased letter-sized folders with printed titles of the occupational classifications given in the book. Other provisions would have to be made, of course, for the cataloguing of books, magazines, films, college catalogues, etc.

Counseling service needed now In order that the discussion of the training of vocational counselors and the service which they render is not thought of solely as a matter of the reconversion period, an ex-

ample of what can be done now by school and college is described in the October, 1944, *Stephens College News Reporter* under the caption "Vocational Planning for the Postwar Graduate." The interesting program at Stephens College is described in this article, from which the following excerpt is quoted:

The vocational guidance counselors at Stephens have set up two main objectives for the current year: (1) to locate new and developing fields of work now open to women and likely to *continue* to be useful and inviting fields after the war; and (2) to distribute information relative to these fields among the students enrolled in the College. On the first objective much work has already been done. The counselors have traveled to various parts of the country and talked with men and women in business and in the professions, with members of guidance councils, with representatives of the War Manpower Commission, and with others who are in position to command and overview the American scene. As a result, twenty-four fields of service have been selected in which women with two or more years of college training are needed now, sixteen fields which will hold increasing opportunity for college-trained women after the war.

As a means of realizing the second objective, vocational orientation classes for all students have been set up which will utilize the following materials and methods:

1. Presentation of the aims and objectives of the course.
2. Presentation of a movie, "Finding Your Life Work," followed by a discussion of the suggested areas of interest.
3. Discussion of the significance of the tests [given to all students within ten days after registration], in relationship to fields of interests, and specific explanation of the general information blank and interest inventory.

4. Talks on results of personality, ability, and aptitude tests.

5. Exploration of fields open *now* and those which will continue to be possible and desirable fields of opportunity after the war.

6. Consideration of probable new fields to be *developed* after the war.

7. A detailed study of the use of the test battery in relation to each individual's interest, abilities, and aptitudes.

8. Special individualized work with students who have already chosen their field of specialization in order to make them better acquainted with the responsibilities, requirements, and opportunities of their particular fields.

9. Personal interviews with each student—discussion of interests, both claimed and measured, analysis of test results in relationship to a chosen field, and preparation of a report (composed jointly by the counselor and the student) to be sent to the student's adviser, hall counselor, admissions counselor, and parents.

10. The compilation of an individual notebook on vocational opportunities for women.

SCHOOLS PREPARE FOR VETERANS

WHAT to do for veterans who desire further education is a problem facing school administrators. The solution of the problem is obviously not simple, although the ultimate solution might produce for veterans a type of program which in reality represents the kind of program that long since should have been instituted for all students. For instance, using examinations, rather than credit for time spent, to determine whether an individual can be benefited by the work at the next higher level is a sound practice in the case of all stu-

dents, veterans or nonveterans. Refresher courses for those who have been away from formal schooling for a time, accelerated programs for those who are able to profit by them, consideration for intellectual and vocational attainments gained from experience and training outside the classroom are other types of practices which have educational advantages for a number of students and not alone for those who return to school from military service. Perhaps in anticipation of the needs of the returning veterans, the schools will be given an opportunity to introduce practices which will promote desirable educational procedures for all.

School authorities will find sound counsel in a recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission, which is titled *A Program for the Education of Returning Veterans*. It can be obtained for ten cents a copy from the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D.C. This report challenges American educators in these words:

Plans and procedures for the readjustment of the veteran cannot be long delayed. The time is now, for already over a million have been released from service. While this first trickle of returning veterans is not entirely typical of the men and women who will confront local communities as the war ends, they are in immediate need of counseling and training, and such service will furnish a valuable laboratory for counseling and training programs. To permit these first adjustment cases to flounder as they return to their communities is to miss the oppor-

tunity to refine procedures before total demobilization occurs.

The problem is a national one, and local communities may look to federal sources for aid in finance, in occupational information, and in advice and assistance. But the adjustment of men and women to peacetime conditions must depend upon utilization of local institutions and agencies, administered as far as possible by those who knew the veteran as a civilian and who are trained and prepared to understand his problem. Local responsibility is part of the essential pattern of American life and particularly of American education.

It is imperative that implementation of this program of training and re-education should be undertaken by the schools and colleges. It is the intent of the law that the education of veterans should be administered through existing educational machinery.

The schools have already stood the test of a War Production Training Program. They, more than any other organization, already have the plant and equipment for such services. They are the one institution that bridges the gap between the national level and the local situation. They are the one common agency found in every one of the 17,000 American communities, 16,000 of which have less than 10,000 population and could not easily be reached by special national agencies. The veteran will usually seek his home community first. Whether he remains or seeks "greener fields" depends largely on the opportunities for adjustment it offers.

The local school system cannot afford to ignore this challenge.

In addition to publications such as the foregoing, there are now appearing statements by institutions and school systems regarding their particular practices in dealing with veterans. One such statement, prepared by the University of Chicago, is now

ready for distribution. The provisions for the needs of veterans at the University of Chicago are stated in the following introductory remarks of this brochure, entitled *Veterans' Education under the Chicago Plan*:

Having been concerned throughout its existence with developing a rational organization and content of education, in which educational achievement is emphasized and the meaningless symbols and practices of traditional education have been discarded, the University of Chicago does not have to improvise special plans for recognizing the educational achievement and needs of veterans. Such provision has existed since adoption of the Chicago Plan in 1930.

The University recognizes, of course, that certain practical adjustments are indicated because of some of the collateral interests and concerns of veterans. Its extensive system of academic counseling will function as well for veterans as for other students, but it will be supplemented by a special advisory service to handle the questions and problems which arise out of the status of veterans as students, and their relationship to the governmental agencies dealing with veterans' rights and benefits. The Veterans' Counseling Service, therefore, was established in the summer of 1944, and special advisers also were appointed in the College, the Divisions, and the Professional Schools. Some returning servicemen and servicewomen, especially in the College, will prefer to attend classes with those of about their own age and to live in residence halls in which the higher degree of supervision required for younger students of the same academic level is not provided. The University will make these and other similar arrangements which the veterans may desire. As is done for all students, the University will provide facilities for student organizations which the veterans may wish to establish because of their community of interest. Veterans will have the same status, rights, and obligations as any other stu-

dents; all the athletic, social, and academic opportunities and honors will be open to them without distinction.

PRE-INDUCTION TRAINING

LEST our desires to solve the educational and vocational problems of returning veterans engage too large a proportion of our thinking and efforts, it is well to have an occasional reminder that there is still with us the responsibility for pre-induction training. A reminder of this kind is afforded by a very recent bulletin which was prepared by the War Department in co-operation with the United States Office of Education and which has the title *Essential Facts about Pre-induction Training*. In its total of eighteen pages this publication contains much that is useful to the school administrator. An appendix offers the reader of this pamphlet a check list for self-survey of activities which come within the compass of pre-induction training. The items contained in this check list are so significant that they should be called to the attention of those readers of the *School Review* who might not otherwise come upon them. For this reason they are quoted herewith:

The War Department does not prescribe the methods by which schools should accomplish pre-induction training. The following check list suggests the type of questions schools might use in conducting self-surveys of their pre-induction activities.

1. Do school administrators and faculty know what Army needs can be met by pre-induction training, and how the Army helps schools that wish to render this assistance?

2. Have school personnel and facilities

been organized for pre-induction training and has co-ordination been effected by means of faculty meetings to discuss pre-induction training and to plan programs of instruction in the various instructional fields?

3. Have special school facilities, such as counselor, library, visual-aids services, etc., been geared for pre-induction training, and has information about the program been adequately publicized to students, parents, and community?

4. Are adequate devices employed to determine vocational aptitudes, deficiencies, needs for remedial or refresher instruction, and conditions requiring corrective treatment?

5. Have existing courses of study been evaluated to determine necessary adaptations, and have revisions or new emphases been made or pre-induction training courses or units of study been established?

6. Are classes so scheduled that maximum use is made of special teaching and laboratory facilities?

7. Has correlation of pre-induction instruction by instructors teaching different subjects been effected, and are evaluative instructional conferences held regularly?

8. Do assignments and classroom work contribute to the student's awareness of the military applications of his studies, including the importance of maintaining proper learning habits in the Army?

9. Is there close co-operation between the school and such out-of-school resources as Selective Service, civic clubs, Y.M.C.A.'s, Boy Scouts, local theaters, public libraries, newspapers, employers, near-by colleges and universities, state departments of public instruction and of vocational education, etc.?

10. Does the school co-operate in providing part-time pre-induction training for out-of-school potential inductees—special classes, facilities and leadership for forums, sponsorship of orientation programs, etc.?

11. Are extra-curriculum activities re-

lated wherever possible to the pre-induction training program, offering opportunities for physical conditioning and for the development of vocational interests useful to the Army?

12. Are pre-induction training instructors familiar with military training programs in Army camps, and with War Department Technical and Field Manuals, training films, and film strips?

13. Is full advantage taken of opportunities to provide pre-induction training in vocational, trade, and industrial schools and classes for all sixteen- and seventeen-year-old boys?

14. Have arrangements been made, through regular courses or extra-curriculum activities, to provide students with information about induction and reception procedures, classification and assignment, basic training, nature of military life, and similar items?

15. Have school officials arranged to visit Army camps to observe training programs in operation?

16. Is follow-up made of former students to determine which phases of the instructional program helped them most in the service, and to secure their suggestions for the guidance and assistance of those still in school?

17. Do school officials and faculty understand the over-all nature of pre-induction training, not as a single course or series of courses, but as a philosophy and emphasis which permeate the whole school program?

18. Does the school provide appropriate pre-induction training for such special groups as prospective members of the Army Specialized Training Reserve Program and the WAC?

19. Do school officials take full advantage of the services, materials, and equipment made available by the Army for pre-induction purposes?

20. Are school officials and faculty aware of the long-term values of pre-induction training?

Any school administrator who is not entirely satisfied with the performance of his school in any particular area of pre-induction training may readily get assistance by consulting the huge accumulation of literature which is now available on the subjects suggested by the questions in the foregoing self-survey.

There is, however, one area of self-survey which might well have been included in this list—the health of the teacher, both physical and mental. Attention is directed to this important aspect of the pre-induction training program by Dr. Marie A. Hinrichs in the October issue of *Illinois Education*. In commenting on the teacher's health, Dr. Hinrichs significantly states:

Standards of fitness for teaching should be exacting, and they should operate so as to keep out of the schools anyone whose presence therein may be the cause of producing mental or physical ill-health in a single pupil! However, there should also be provision for granting to the teacher "time out" for correction of remediable defects whenever this seems necessary.

No doubt the program for teachers implied by these remarks fits equally the situation as it refers to administrative officers.

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT OF YOUTH

THE late summer campaign directed toward the return of youth to school has met with success in many communities. In numerous instances, however, youth have returned to school on a part-time basis or are retaining part-time jobs. In

many communities the shortage of labor is still so critical that employers request school boards to adjust school schedules better to meet the demands for part-time employment of youth. Some school systems limit their class programs in the high school to a session which extends from 8:00 A.M. to 1:00 P.M. This provides a full afternoon for part-time employment by all pupils who wish to engage in part-time employment.

In school systems which have "co-ordinators" in charge of their vocational-training programs, pupils who are taking vocational-training courses have the benefit of some supervision in their study and work programs. Counsel is provided to see to it that the high-school pupil is not carrying too heavy a load in his combined program of study and work. In many schools, however, the pupils do not have this type of supervision, and between study and work they either attempt too much or do not carry forward in proper balance their school and work programs. Their education and health should, of course, be given primary consideration, especially in light of the community expectation that for many it is a pre-induction period.

In an attempt to co-operate with employers, however, the school administrator is sometimes at a loss to know just what attitude he should assume. Assistance has been given him by a statement which is entitled "Policies for Part-Time Employment of School Youth," which is issued

jointly by the War Manpower Commission, the United States Office of Education, and the United States Children's Bureau. This statement points out that the first obligation of youth is to take advantage of the education afforded them. It also indicates that large numbers of youth are filling part-time jobs for which they are not fitted, which do not contribute to the war effort, and which in some cases are detrimental to their health. This bulletin suggests that the following principles should be observed by school authorities:

1. The War Manpower Commission is responsible for determining the over-all manpower needs and for developing programs to meet those needs. When the Area Director of the War Manpower Commission determines that the part-time employment of in-school youth will contribute to meeting the essential manpower needs of a community, he will consult with and make recommendations to the local educational authority concerning the establishment of a student-worker program.

2. The local educational authority will decide, on the basis of such recommendations, and the recommendation of an advisory committee as provided for in paragraph 3, whether a student-worker program for the part-time employment of in-school youth is feasible and should be organized. If such a program is to be organized, the high schools from which students will be drawn should be designated; plans should be approved for in-school organization, including the selection of students, follow-up methods, and records and reports; and the supervisor or co-ordinator should be selected who will have charge of the program in each school.

3. A local advisory committee composed of designated representatives of business, industry, the press, organized labor, and

other groups concerned with the employment and welfare of youth should be appointed by the local school authority. The appointments should be mutually acceptable to the local school authority and the local United States Employment Service. Such an advisory committee should be closely related to any over-all committee in the community on children in wartime or on employment of young workers. This committee should serve in an advisory capacity to the operating agencies in connection with plans and matters pertaining to the welfare and development of employed in-school youth and to measures for stimulating participation in needed programs. Measures developed to influence attitudes of youth or their parents toward participation in this program should develop an understanding, through presentation of facts, of the relation of the work they are or might be doing to the war effort. Any appeals should be based on need and should stress the importance of education and the value of education of youth to the war and to the nation, as well as the importance of the contribution which students can make through employment. In communities where fewer than fifty student workers are likely to be involved, there is probably no need for an advisory committee.

4. The plans for an approved student-worker program should be developed jointly by designated representatives of the local school authority and the local United States Employment Service manager, and will provide for the co-ordination of relationships between the schools and the employment service office.

5. The United States Employment Service will contact employers for the purpose of receiving employer orders, determining job requirements, and working conditions offered. The school representative may follow up students on the job for the purpose of determining the probable effect of the work upon their school progress, health, and well-being.

6. Designated representatives of the local schools will give counseling service to students regarding part-time employment, and will select those students who are interested in and qualified to accept employment under the student-worker plan and will refer those students to the employment service for placement. Referrals should be accompanied by specific recommendations regarding the type and extent of employment in which students should be placed, their employment qualifications, and other prerequisites to successful placement.

7. The designated representative of the local school authority should refer students to employers direct only in accordance with arrangements which have been agreed upon by the United States Employment Service and the school authority.

8. The United States Employment Service will upon request furnish the local school authority with labor-market and occupational information with the understanding that restrictions governing its use will be respected.

The foregoing statements should provide sound practices and will be subscribed to by school administrators, businessmen, and the members of the community generally, if they are properly presented.

HEALTHFUL COMMUNITY LIVING

THE stimulation of war, coupled with the increased emphasis in the schools on education for mental and physical health and on physical training, is making youth health conscious. The problem which faces educators now is how to stimulate youth

to continue their health programs, in and out of school, after the war is over. There is something rather prosaic in the usual admonitions which adults hurl at youth about spinach, fresh air, and good companions. Only as the desire for healthful living comes from youth itself can any long-term health program be established.

The National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, New York, describes, in a leaflet entitled "Teen Age Centers," one activity which warrants the attention of educators interested in a natural approach to the establishment of good habits of living. It contains a report of teen-age centers which, according to this report, are springing up all over the country. It is estimated that at the time of publication there were approximately five hundred such centers. The leaflet describes the promotion program, the typical organization, methods of financing the project, favorable location of centers, their facilities, the part played by adults in the program, methods of operation of the centers, the days and hours when they are operated, and typical activities carried on by centers. Perhaps in teen-age centers there is the germ of a new youth movement in this country and the basis for making youth socially, physically, recreationally, and intellectually health conscious.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT C. WOELL-

NER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. J. M. O'ROURKE, placement counselor at Lane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois, presents a survey of the pattern of occupations in Chicago and indicates how research on occupational trends has significance for both general and specialized education. LOIS DILLEY, head of the Department of English at West High School, Rockford, Illinois, describes a co-ordinated effort by all the teachers in a school system to improve the reading skills of pupils. B. LAMAR JOHNSON, dean of instruction, librarian, and acting chairman of the Divisions of Humanities and Foreign Languages at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, summarizes the growth of the junior college and suggests five trends that may be expected in the future development of the junior college. WINIFRED B. LINDERMAN, reference librarian at Vassar College Library, Poughkeepsie, New York, discusses the areas in which the school librarian will find it necessary to look to the school principal for help in or-

der to provide the best possible library service to the school. G. F. EKSTROM, assistant professor of agricultural education at the University of Minnesota, reports a study of the problems which confront graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture as they enter farming and discusses the implications of the findings of this study for the program of vocational agriculture in high schools. The selected references on higher education have been prepared by JOHN DALE RUSSELL, professor of education and associate dean and dean of students in the Division of Social Sciences at the University of Chicago, and DONALD M. MACKENZIE, technical assistant to the secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

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EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS

J. M. O'ROURKE

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STATISTICS which show the status of, and trends in, occupations have definite significance for education—significance for both general and specialized education.

General education may be loosely defined as the process by which youth are inducted into the traditions, standards, and values—aesthetic, ethical, and religious—of a culture. All social systems are influenced, to a greater or less degree, by the economic organization through which they provide the means of sustenance. Occupational structure and trends will, therefore, influence the objectives and means of general education. A rapidly advancing technology, with its accompanying increase in specialization and proliferation of jobs, places a premium on technical and trade training. Technological changes are significant for their influence on the meaning of general education, in that they force a redefinition of its content from purely classical and linguistic to scientific and technological media.

If the schools are to prepare their students for specialized callings, it is also necessary to know something about the nature of these specialties—the types of skill used, the trends in the use of skill and machinery, and the probable extent of employment

over a period of years. It is frequently asserted that the machine is replacing human skill, that the trend to automatization in production is changing the number of highly skilled and unskilled workers to a numerous body of workers of a semiskilled type, who can be trained to a high degree of productivity in relatively short periods of time. Such a trend would have profound significance for education; for it would raise very important questions about the relation of such highly precise, limited training to a program of education necessary for a high level of personal living. This relation becomes doubly important in the face of evidence that indicates an increasing degree of variability, change, and obsolescence in occupations within the life-span of individual workers.

A system of occupational analysis that could plot these long-term trends would be immensely valuable. It is doubtful whether existing statistics provide the basis for any such precise analysis. Occupational stability and change are closely related to industrial organization and technological proficiency because production policies, production rates, and technical efficiency affect directly the number of workers employed at a given time

and the definite skill and knowledge required to produce unit quantities of given commodities.

Since the 1940 Census returns on occupations are now available, it may prove valuable to give a summary of some of the general characteristics of the labor force. For purposes of simplicity of analysis, the succeeding

In Table 1 is shown a distribution of the labor force in Chicago by sex, race, employed, and unemployed. The classification "nonwhite" is composed largely of Negroes, other races totaling slightly over three thousand members. From the table it can be seen that 11.3 per cent of the labor force were seeking work. If to the total of

TABLE 1
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE CHICAGO POPULATION BY SEX AND RACE IN TOTAL
NUMBERS AND IN PERCENTAGES*

SEX AND RACE	NUMBER OF PER- SONS 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER	NUMBER OF PER- SONS IN LABOR FORCE	PER CENT OF POP- ULATION 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN LA- BOR FORCE	PERSONS EMPLOYED (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMER- GENCY WORK)		PERSONS ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK		PERSONS SEEKING WORK					
								Experienced Workers		Inexperienced Workers		Total	
				Number	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Total....	2,777,329	1,593,913	57.4	1,352,218	84.8	61,665	3.9	150,384	9.4	29,646	1.9	180,030	11.3
Male...	1,367,260	1,121,618	82.0	942,365	84.0	49,949	4.5	112,636	10.0	16,668	1.5	129,304	11.5
Female...	1,410,069	472,295	33.5	409,853	86.8	11,716	2.5	37,748	8.0	12,978	2.7	50,726	10.7
White...	2,552,979	1,469,137	57.5	1,271,308	86.5	41,556	2.8	130,660	8.9	25,613	1.7	156,273	10.6
Non- white.	224,350	124,776	55.6	80,910	64.8	20,109	16.1	19,724	15.8	4,033	3.2	23,757	19.0

* Data are adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population: Vol. III, The Labor Force, Illinois*, Table 1 and Table 4.

survey based on the Census returns has been limited to the city of Chicago.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LABOR FORCE

The data presented in this article are based on the returns of the Census enumeration taken in April, 1940. Since comparisons with data for 1941, 1942, and 1943 are impossible, it is well to remember that the general pattern of labor distribution has changed rapidly and perhaps radically.

those seeking work are added the number on public emergency work, the true volume of unemployment at that time can be seen. The total number of new workers seeking work (29,646) emphasizes a well-known characteristic of periods of general unemployment. This group constitutes about 16 per cent of those seeking work, but it is noteworthy that the percentage is higher for female and for nonwhite than for male workers. The influence of racial discrimination can be plainly seen in the percentages of nonwhites who were

employed on public emergency work and who were seeking work.

It is natural to find, in great industrial and commercial centers, that the predominant sources of income are in the form of wages and salaries and that the number of people who direct and manage their own enterprises is correspondingly small. The nature of the distribution of wage-earners, salaried workers, and self-

trial organization. It implies that nine people out of ten are constrained by a form of income determined to a great extent by set wage rates; conditioned by predetermined policies of promotion, tenure, and retirement; and subject, of course, to long-term cyclical economic changes which introduce a truly aleatory element.

The implications of such an economic system for social institutions

TABLE 2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PERSONS IN THE LABOR FORCE IN CHICAGO BY
CLASS OF WORKER, SEX, AND RACE, 1940*

SEX AND RACE	TOTAL NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK)	PRIVATE WAGE OR SALARY WORKERS		GOVERNMENT WORKERS		EMPLOYERS AND OWN-ACCOUNT WORKERS		UNPAID FAMILY WORKERS	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total (all races)	1,352,218	1,127,100	83.4	80,554	6.0	134,651	10.0	9,823	0.7
Male	942,365	771,482	81.9	56,244	6.0	112,170	11.9	2,469	.3
Female	409,853	355,708	86.8	24,310	5.9	22,481	5.5	7,354	1.8
Nonwhite	80,910	68,254	84.4	5,642	7.0	6,733	8.3	281	.3
Male	53,309	44,647	83.7	4,472	8.4	4,106	7.7	84	.2
Female	27,601	23,607	85.5	1,170	4.2	2,627	9.5	197	0.7

* Data are adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population: Vol. III, The Labor Force, Illinois*, Table 3.

employed persons for Chicago is shown in Table 2.

To the percentages given under wage and salaried workers should be added those shown for government workers. It can then be seen that the number of self-employed persons is approximately one in ten. The occupational structure presented by these figures is somewhat different from that which is commonly attributed to economic life by the folklore inherited from an earlier phase of indus-

try in general, and for educational systems in particular, cannot be explored here, but the present structure of, and possible trends in, occupations must be of great interest to curriculum makers and guidance workers. The curriculum of a vocational system of education or the vocational aspects of general education must be based on a knowledge of the fundamental processes of the industrial system. Such an analysis might show that a broad general knowledge of,

and skill in, basic industrial processes would be more useful and at the same time more educational than specific training in precise skills. By the same token, an understanding of occupational patterns would help to clarify the frequently conflicting issues be-

of the employed labor force in Chicago is concentrated in the fields of manufacturing, transportation, and trade. To look at the figures in another way, if manufacturing and construction are considered as the primary fabricating industrial processes, a little less than

TABLE 3

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN CHICAGO IN EACH INDUSTRY (AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, FISHING, AND MINING OMITTED), AND NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN EACH INDUSTRY WHO ARE MALES, FEMALES, AND NONWHITES*

INDUSTRY	NUMBER OF EMPLOYED WORKERS	PER CENT OF ALL WORKERS	MALES		FEMALES		NONWHITES	
			Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Manufacturing.....	460,857	34.1	345,421	75.0	115,436	25.1	15,694	3.4
Construction.....	52,067	3.9	50,568	97.1	1,499	2.9	2,013	3.9
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities.....	135,717	10.0	114,817	84.6	20,900	15.4	8,003	5.9
Wholesale and retail trade	310,286	23.0	208,258	67.1	102,028	32.9	14,207	4.6
Finance, insurance, and real estate.....	72,848	5.4	48,628	66.8	24,220	33.2	2,962	4.1
Business and repair services.....	34,482	2.6	28,853	83.7	5,629	16.3	2,711	7.9
Professional and related services.....	92,183	6.8	41,685	45.2	50,498	54.8	3,310	3.6
Government.....	47,706	3.5	40,089	84.0	7,617	16.0	3,932	8.2
Amusements, recreation, and related services...	15,171	1.1	11,395	75.1	3,776	24.9	1,581	10.4
Personal services.....	114,779	8.5	43,077	37.5	71,702	62.5	25,884	22.6
Not reported.....	14,049	1.0	7,722	55.0	6,327	45.0	563	8.2
Total.....	1,350,145	99.9	940,513	409,632	80,860
Average.....				69.7		30.3		6.0

* Data are adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population: Vol. III, The Labor Force, Illinois* Table 20.

tween the values presumably inherent in the traditional school subjects and those manifest in the workaday world.

A few additional inferences may be drawn from the data in Table 3, which give a perspective of the distribution of employed workers in the industrial classifications used in the Census. It may be observed that roughly two-thirds (67.1 per cent)

four out of ten employed workers are so engaged, and six are engaged in the subsidiary operations—transportation, trade, finance, government, and all forms of services. This distribution of employment conforms to the general pattern of large industrial and commercial areas.

In regard to the sexes, it is clear that men do not fall below 66 per

cent of the total employed except in two fields, personal services and professional and related services; in these two fields women comprise better than 50 per cent of the employed.

The nonwhite group equals or exceeds the percentage that it is of the total labor force (7.8) in four classifications—business and repair services; government service; amusements, recreation, and related services; and

are included. For men and women separately these five fields contain approximately the same percentages of workers as does the population as a whole, but for the nonwhites it is significant that the five classifications include nine-tenths (92.2 per cent) of the nonwhite working population, and the three classifications lowest in the social and economic scale (operatives, service workers, and laborers)

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE, FEMALE, NONWHITE, AND ALL WORKERS IN CHICAGO ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION*

Occupational Classification	Male	Female	Nonwhite	All
Professional and semiprofessional.....	6.8	9.8	3.8	7.7
Proprietors, managers, and officials.....	10.3	3.4	2.6	8.4
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers.....	21.6	41.0	9.1	27.5
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	19.7	1.4	6.1	12.7
Operatives and kindred workers.....	22.1	21.6	20.1	22.0
Protective service workers.....	2.2	.1	.9	1.6
Service workers, except protective service workers..	8.1	20.7	43.6	12.0
Laborers, including farm.....	8.8	1.3	13.3	6.5
Occupation not reported.....	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5
Total.....	100.1	99.9	99.9	98.9

* Data are adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population: Vol. III, The Labor Force, Illinois*, Table 20.

personal services—having a notably high percentage of workers in the two last-mentioned categories.

In Table 4 is shown the percentage of the male, female, nonwhite, and all workers who are in each occupational classification. It can be observed that almost two-thirds (62.2 per cent) of all workers are engaged in three occupational fields: clerical, sales, and kindred workers; craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers; and operatives and kindred workers. If laborers and service workers are added to this summation, four-fifths of all workers

contain three-fourths (77 per cent) of these workers. Of interest also is the high percentage of males in the proprietary and managerial, of females in the clerical and sales, and of nonwhites in the service categories.

If the two classifications commonly thought to be the highest in social and economic status (the professional and the semiprofessional, and the proprietary and the managerial) are considered, it can be seen that they contain 16.1 per cent of the total working force, 17.1 per cent of the male working force, 13.2 per cent of the

female working force, but only 6.4 per cent of the nonwhite working force. On the other end of the scale, service workers and laborers comprise 18.5 per cent of all workers, 16.9 per cent of male workers, 22.0 per cent of female workers, and 56.9 per cent of nonwhite workers.

It is clear that a wide range of skills and training is involved in all the

liberal understanding of the world in which they live.

An analysis of the sex and racial composition of each occupational group is shown in Table 5. It can be seen that seven out of ten Chicago workers are men and that six out of every hundred are nonwhites. Males comprise a high percentage of the professional workers, proprietors,

TABLE 5
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN CHICAGO IN EACH OCCUPATIONAL
CLASSIFICATION WHO ARE MALE, FEMALE, AND NONWHITE*

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION	MALE		FEMALE		NONWHITE	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Professional and semiprofessional.....	63,796	61.4	40,159	38.6	3,076	3.0
Proprietors, managers, and officials.....	96,864	87.5	13,801	12.5	2,125	1.9
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers.....	203,275	54.7	168,222	45.3	7,338	2.0
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers....	185,472	96.5	5,927	3.5	4,906	2.9
Operatives and kindred workers.....	208,361	70.1	88,666	29.9	16,302	5.5
Protective service workers.....	20,846	98.7	284	1.3	731	3.5
Service workers, except protective service workers.....	76,633	47.5	84,875	52.6	35,318	21.9
Laborers, including farm.....	82,873	93.8	5,471	6.2	10,789	12.2
Occupation not reported.....	4,245	63.4	2,448	36.6	325	4.7
Total.....	942,365	409,853	80,910
Average.....	69.7	30.3	6.0

* Data are adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population: Vol. III, The Labor Force, Illinois*, Table 20.

specific occupations subsumed under these main headings. It would be highly informative to the school counselor and the administrator to know definitely the range of skills involved in these many jobs and the nature of the training needed to acquire reasonable proficiency in them. Such definite knowledge would also give a sharper insight into the character of the general education needed to give this large group of workers a

craftsmen, operatives, protective service workers, and laborers. In only two groups—clerical and sales, and service—do female workers comprise approximately one-half the employed workers. If the percentage that the number of female workers in the labor force is of the total working force be taken as a standard (29.6), then it can be seen that females exceed the standard in three classifications—professional workers; clerical, sales, and kin-

dred workers; and service workers—and equal it in one classification—operatives. In two classifications—service workers and laborers—the nonwhites exceed the percentage that the nonwhite labor force is of the total labor force. Twenty-two of every hundred service workers are nonwhite, but only six out of every hundred of the total working population are nonwhite. The classification “operatives” is the only one in which the distribution of the work force for the race and sex categories is approximately the same as it is in the total employed population.

These summaries give a general view of the nature of the working force in a single area. They can be useful to the educator in the same way that a general map is useful to a geographer, for they can only indicate areas and focal points that need more detailed scrutiny and examination. The facts about the sex and the racial composition of occupations must be recognized. It is essential, however, that an understanding of this more general structure should lead to detailed analysis of the many occupations that are included under the larger classifications.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION IN THE PROFESSIONS

The statistical returns in the census of occupations for the professional and semiprofessional classifications can be considered accurate, for the occupations in these classifications are quite identifiable. Most of these

occupations, in fact, can be pursued only by persons who have obtained some form of certificate or license from the state.

Statistics for 1940 show that the striking point in the distribution of professional occupations among men is the prominence of the engineers. If to the 8,988 engineers there be added 4,012 draftsmen, classified as semiprofessional workers, the significance of the technological expert in industrial society can be clearly seen. It would be reasonable also to add to these groups 2,439 chemists, assayers, and metallurgists and 696 architects, making a total of 16,135 persons employed in the higher technical operations of an industrial community. This last figure can be compared with a total of 63,796 males employed in professional and semiprofessional pursuits, a ratio that is roughly one to four. The relative importance of the medical occupations for males can be seen by summing the numbers employed as physicians and surgeons, dentists, pharmacists, and trained nurses, which gives a total of 11,894. These two groups, engineering and medicine, include a total of 28,029 of the 63,796 male professional and semiprofessional workers. Almost half of all professional men in Chicago are engaged in work that requires a highly specific technical training.

The distribution of professional occupations for women is quite different from that for men. Eighty-six per cent are found in four professional occupations: teachers, nurses, musi-

cians and music teachers, and social and welfare workers. Teachers alone approximate three-sevenths, and teachers and nurses together three-fourths, of all employed female professional workers. If such a distribution denotes a permanent characteristic of the occupational structure, then it is clear that the preparation of women for professional work is definitely limited. It is impossible to assay the influence of the war on the rather stereotyped distribution of professional work among the sexes or to predict new types of professional work that may expand opportunities for either or both sexes. Data indicate that most professions are dominated by one or the other sex, a fact which is of definite significance for educators, if subsequent statistics show that the data for 1940 indicate a general characteristic of occupational distribution.

An interesting point can be brought out by summing the number of persons on the basis of the training implied by the occupational classifications. In this way it can be assumed that 12,259 or 14 per cent of all professional workers have had a technical education; that 23,599 or 28 per cent have had some form of medical education; and that 37,845 or 44 per cent have had an education that is based primarily on a liberal-arts curriculum. This latter group does not include 7,286 lawyers nor 4,206 unclassified workers who account for 14 per cent of the total.

The semiprofessional workers in

Chicago, as classified by the Census, number 18,790 persons, or roughly 18 per cent of the number employed in professional and semiprofessional pursuits. Women number 4,523. Six occupations account for 60 per cent of all semiprofessional workers: designers, draftsmen, healers and medical service workers, photographers, religious workers, and laboratory technicians and assistants. These figures indicate that the semiprofessional fields do not offer a wide range of opportunity or numerous positions for young people seeking vocational orientation. A study of trends might show future possibilities of great expansion in some or several of these fields. It must be remembered, however, that the semiprofessional workers comprise only 18,790 persons out of a total of 1,352,218 persons employed in Chicago.

Since the professions and semiprofessions are rather clearly identifiable in skill and training, more careful study should show major trends and the relation of predicted demand to the supply of youth with potential abilities suitable to achievement in these fields.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

It is quite clear that the pattern of occupations for Chicago conforms generally to the pattern revealed by extensive studies of the national economy. A study of occupational trends in Chicago would undoubtedly reveal the same development as that shown for the nation by the studies of

Hurlin and Givens¹ and Anderson and Davidson.²

The distribution of the labor force in Chicago is probably typical of large industrial areas, with approximately 40 per cent of its workers engaged in the basic manufacturing processes and the remainder occupied with the distributive and service features that mark the complexity and diversity of the modern economic system. Other important aspects of this industrial community are the wage-earning character of the workers' livelihood, the tendency for certain fields of work to be marked by a predominance of men or women, and the striking relegation of the nonwhites to the tasks that are low in economic remuneration and social prestige. In the professions these forces can be seen operating in definite occupations within the major classifications. A study of trends within the professions would reveal present needs and probable future demands but not, of course, the most desirable size of each profession in relation to social effectiveness.

A cursory survey, such as this, by outlining the general structure of occupational life in an industrial community, emphasizes the need for more

definitive analyses in many central or dominant areas and regions. The vocational counselor must have accurate and current occupational information, not only about national needs and trends, but also about the variations within the local community. It is true, of course, that large-scale economic forces affecting the volume of production, the rates of productivity, and the amount of employment will be determining factors affecting local labor forces, but the response of the local industrial organization will vary from place to place. For this reason continuing study of occupational patterns of particular areas is necessary for effective vocational counseling.

For educational theorists a precise knowledge of the occupational structure, national and regional, would be of great help in defining the values and the processes of vocational education and in indicating the relation of those values and processes to the values and processes of that general or cultural education which is more than, at the same time that it is part of, the dominant economic orientation of society. Reasonably accurate information about the world of work would invalidate that thought which conceives of education as merely job proficiency. At the same time it would reveal moral and ethical values inherent in, and necessary for, individual satisfaction and social stability within the industrial process. In this way occupational research could contribute to the general education of youth.

¹ Ralph G. Hurlin and Meredith B. Givens, "Shifting Occupational Patterns," *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, pp. 268-324. Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933.

² H. Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson, *Occupational Trends in the United States*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940.

EVERYTEACHER AND READING

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IN THE junior and senior high schools at Rockford, Illinois, teachers have been working since 1941 to make instruction more meaningful by translating certain new concepts of reading into skilful use in English, social studies, science, home-economics, and mathematics classrooms.

The first concern of the planning committee, composed of teachers representing the five buildings and the five content areas, was to enlist the interest and the active co-operation of all thoughtful teachers in the subject-matter fields. Through meetings of the teachers in the various buildings and departments, the importance of a co-ordinated attack on reading deficiencies was emphasized. Of course teachers need scarcely be reminded of the very large percentage of assignments which depend for their mastery on the ability of the pupils to comprehend meaning—at the high-school level often quite detailed, involved, or subtle meaning—from the printed page. Since ability to read well promotes interest and growth in almost any area, a reading study can be made of concern to all except the most frivolous teachers.

Obviously the next step was to check our thinking about reading

with established opinion as expressed in the many recent books about this problem. From the Reading Study fund five books which discussed reading from the point of view of the various content subjects were bought for the library of each school, and teachers contributed other books for this background reading.

At first a few teachers objected to a reading program for junior and senior high schools. "Reading should be taught in the grades," they protested. "If the elementary-school teachers would do their job well, then we could teach our pupils the mathematics [or science or history] they ought to know." However, as the suggested background reading was done and the problem thought through in meetings, teachers began to accept the concept that reading is a continuously evolving skill begun in the elementary school and continued through high school and college on into maturity. They began to see that reading skills must keep pace with growing intellect and changing interests and that a continual refinement of these skills would in turn help the pupil to achieve his maximum intellectual growth.

Another new interpretation im-

plicit in the developmental concept is the idea that reading is not one simple ability but a highly complex skill made up of many specific skills. A pupil's ability as a reader can be improved most effectively by helping him specifically with those skills in which he is the weakest, weak perhaps in some cases because he has not received training in them at any level or in any subject.

Likewise, it soon becomes apparent that, while a few of these skills are needed in all areas, many of them are used much more frequently in reading for specific departments. The teachers in all subject areas agreed that they wish their pupils to be able to follow directions and to adjust their speed of reading to the nature of the material and to their purpose for reading it. However, the science teacher often sends his pupils to charts and graphs to get detailed information, and the history teacher to maps; the mathematics instructor would be particularly concerned if a pupil could not read decimals. This approach to the reading problem removes the last defense of the content teacher—that training in reading is the sole responsibility of the teacher of English. Surely skills can be taught most efficiently where they are to be used most frequently.

After a semester of reading and discussion, reports to the planning committee indicated some agreement as to general outlook. The program was to be an attack on reading deficiencies accumulating at the secondary-school

level and was to build on the training in fundamental reading skills in the elementary school by carefully coordinated instruction in the more complex and subtle skills during the high-school years.

DEFINING THE READING SKILLS NEEDED

Once a general point of view had been arrived at, content departments began conferring to determine how this philosophy could be worked out in their areas. Teachers compiled for their subject a list of the skills necessary to enable pupils to do their reading assignments satisfactorily. These lists were determined by considering the purposes for which pupils should read in the materials of the course. Although the teachers are agreed in considering important those skills necessary for fact-getting, they also believe that in many assignments the purposes for reading cannot be fulfilled unless the pupil can read deeply enough to modify his attitudes, his ways of thinking, and his standards of judgment. Perhaps the conclusions can best be shown by including for each subject a list of skills, which is a composite of the lists worked out in all the buildings.

There are several skills for which all five departments expressed a need; these will not be repeated with each list.

MOST GENERALLY NEEDED SKILLS

1. Ability to understand the vocabulary of the subject
 - a) General words

- b) Words peculiar to the subject
- c) General words with a specialized meaning in the particular subject
- 2. Ability to infer the meaning of a word from its context whenever possible, as well as the habit of using the dictionary
- 3. Ability to get meaning from a sentence by using such clues as key words, punctuation, grammatical relationships, word order, transition, etc.
- 4. Ability to group words and phrases so as to get meaning
- 5. Ability to follow printed directions
- 6. Ability to adjust speed of reading to the nature of the material and to the purpose for reading it
- 7. Ability to retain what has been read and to relate it to new material
- 8. Ability to organize material read in the light of a given problem or topic
- 9. Ability to skim for information

READING SKILLS NECESSARY FOR SUCCESS IN ENGLISH

- 1. Skills necessary in the use of reference material
 - a) Ability to use the dictionary
 - b) Ability to use the aids commonly found in books
 - (1) Title-page
 - (2) Table of contents
 - (3) Index
 - (4) Titles of chapters
 - (5) Glossary
 - (6) Study helps
 - (7) Typographical aids
 - c) Ability to use the library and library materials
 - (1) Card catalogue
 - (2) *Readers' Guide*
 - (3) Encyclopedias
 - (4) Dictionaries of biography
 - (5) Books of quotations
 - (6) Anthologies of literature

- 2. Skills necessary for comprehension
 - a) Ability to read more efficiently because of a knowledge of common structural patterns used in—
 - (1) The sentence
 - (2) The paragraph
 - (3) The article
 - (4) The short story
 - (5) The novel
 - (6) Drama
 - b) Ability to understand the underlying or implied meaning of a given selection—a paragraph, an article, or a book
 - c) Ability to differentiate between the central idea and the supporting ideas
 - d) Ability to understand satirical, ironic, figurative, or subtle statements
 - e) Ability to anticipate outcomes, to generalize, and to make deductions
- 3. Skills necessary if material is to become meaningful enough to modify pupil attitudes, ways of thinking, and standards of judgment
 - a) Ability to identify problems of individuals and society as found in books with the pupil's own problems or those of his environment
 - b) Ability to interpret the present through the perspective gained in reading of the past
 - c) Ability to live vicariously through the experiences of people in books and thus to extend and to enrich first-hand experience
 - d) Ability to discriminate between books which give a true picture of life and those which distort, exaggerate, oversimplify, or otherwise misrepresent it
 - e) Ability to read with an open-minded search for the truth, with suspension of judgment until an adequate basis of facts and information has been gained
 - f) Ability to find refreshment from the printed page
- 4. Ability to interpret the printed page through oral reading with proper inflec-

tion, phrasing, and emphasis so that the reader may please or influence the listener

SKILLS NECESSARY FOR READING SOCIAL-STUDIES MATERIAL

1. Skills necessary in the use of reference material

- a) Ability to use the dictionary
- b) Ability to read maps, graphs, tables, charts, and cartoons
- c) Ability to use aids commonly found in books
 - (1) Title-page
 - (2) Table of contents
 - (3) Index
 - (4) Glossary, footnotes
 - (5) Chapter and paragraph headings
 - (6) Study helps
 - (7) Typographical aids
 - (8) Pictorial material
- d) Ability to use the library and library material
 - (1) Card catalogue
 - (2) *Readers' Guide*
 - (3) Current periodicals
 - (4) Encyclopedias

2. Skills necessary for comprehension

- a) Ability to find the central idea and the subordinate details—to outline and to summarize
- b) Ability to anticipate outcomes, to generalize, and to make deductions

3. Skills necessary if attitudes are to be modified

- a) Ability to read with an open-minded search for the truth, with suspension of judgment until an adequate basis of facts and information has been gained
- b) Ability to evaluate evidence and sources of information
- c) Ability to distinguish between fact and propaganda
- d) Ability to interpret the present through the perspective gained in reading of the past
- e) Ability to read historical material imaginatively

f) Ability to see contrasts and to make comparisons

g) Ability to see cause and effect

h) Ability to read biography with a respect for differences in personality and ideals and with an appreciation of high standards of conduct

SKILLS NECESSARY FOR COMPREHENSION IN MATHEMATICS

- 1. Ability to interpret abstract symbols as substitutes for numerical values
- 2. Ability to follow directions
 - a) To determine the problem
 - b) To select relevant data from those given
- 3. Ability to read numbers accurately
- 4. Ability to read pictorial material, such as graphs, figures, charts, and tables
- 5. Ability to visualize graphic representation of numerical values
- 6. Ability to grasp the primary idea and to see corollary ideas

READING SKILLS ESSENTIAL IN SCIENCE

1. Skills necessary in the use of reference material

- a) Ability to use the dictionary—when and how to use it
- b) Ability to use aids commonly found in books
 - (1) Table of contents
 - (2) Index
 - (3) Glossary
 - (4) Prefaces
 - (5) Appendix
 - (6) Footnotes
 - (7) Lists of tables
 - (8) Typographical aids
- c) Ability to read tables, charts, graphs
- d) Ability to use the library and library materials
 - (1) Card catalogue
 - (2) Encyclopedias
 - (3) Reliable science material

2. Skills necessary for comprehension of science material

- a) Ability to analyze new science words to find their meaning
- b) Ability to acquire new concepts and to clarify and extend old ones
- c) Ability to see what the problem is and what solution is wanted
- d) Ability to select facts relevant to a problem or a topic
- e) Ability to generalize from material read
- f) Ability to compare and evaluate ideas obtained from reading
- g) Ability to read with open-minded search for the truth, with suspension of judgment until an adequate basis of facts and information has been gained

READING SKILLS ESSENTIAL IN HOME ECONOMICS

1. Skills necessary in the use of reference materials

- a) Ability to use the dictionary
- b) Ability to use aids commonly found in books
 - (1) Table of contents
 - (2) Index
 - (3) Titles of chapters
 - (4) Pictorial material
- c) Ability to read patterns, charts, graphs, tables, recipes
- d) Ability to use the library and library material
 - (1) Card catalogue
 - (2) Recent periodicals

2. Skills necessary for comprehension

- a) Ability to differentiate between the main idea and supporting details
- b) Ability to read and remember details
- c) Ability to draw conclusions from what is read

3. Skills necessary if attitudes, ways of thinking, and standards of judgment are to be modified

- a) Ability to evaluate materials
- b) Ability to apply in one's own life the principles read about

DETERMINING READING

WEAKNESSES

Having tentatively decided on the skills needed by the pupil if he is to do high-school work well, each building then turned to the problem of testing to see in which skills the pupils needed more careful instruction. Since adequate evaluation is difficult, as many and as varied means of testing as possible were used.

A questionnaire to determine the quality and the extent of voluntary reading was given to junior and senior high school pupils on their return to school after the November and December enforced vacation during the first year of our study. As practices differed in the two senior high schools, a comparison of their reading results was made to study the effectiveness of the techniques used. Before school closed in November, at School B teachers in all content subjects gave their pupils hectographed lists of books to stimulate and to guide their reading. Although lighter on the whole than the usual reading done for the courses, in many cases the lists were an outgrowth of work previously done. In order to make the reading meaningful as well as interesting, the titles were often chosen around some problem as close as possible to the life of the adolescent, and some preliminary discussion of these problems was included to arouse interest and to set standards. In School A there was discussion of the importance of being an efficient reader and of improving reading skills, but no attempt was made to

guide reading during the recess. In neither school was reading required during the two months, although credit was promised if pupils wished to do it.

Answers to the questionnaires indicated that the pupils at School B read not only a greater number of books than did the pupils at School A but also books which were somewhat more mature and varied in type. These results seemed to justify the conclusion that teachers in all fields might well attempt more generally to extend their influence over vacation reading. Moreover, teachers at School B are convinced that building units around a problem stimulates wider and more purposeful reading.

The findings on these questionnaires presented certain other problems which became a part of the basis for our remedial work during the third year of our study. One purpose for giving the questionnaire had been to see whether we had been able to make readers of our pupils, whether they voluntarily turned to books, magazines, and newspapers during their free time. As in most recent surveys, two general trends were revealed by our figures: (1) there was a fairly consistent decline in the amount of reading done after Grade VII; (2) the boys read less widely than the girls. In School B, however, where there had been a preliminary attempt to stimulate reading, both of these unfortunate tendencies were considerably modified. Also, in School A particularly, the decrease in the

number of books reported was paralleled by an increase in the reading of magazines.

An analysis of the quantity of reading done raised several problems for study as to underlying causes and effective remedial measures. Can we dismiss the lack of interest in reading on the part of boys as "natural" because they are more active than girls? Can the unfortunate tendencies noted in our findings be modified by a concerted attack, based on a careful analysis of causes, with all departments assisting? In class discussions and tests do we emphasize enough the relationship between the facts of our courses and the problems of everyday life so that pupils will seek further perspective for understanding the present world through books? Are the books which we suggest that children read too academic to stimulate further reading? Do we make enough use of magazine-reading, which seems so attractive to high-school pupils?

When we examined the titles of the books and the magazines which were read, we were especially impressed by the wide range in the maturity of interests shown by pupils at the same grade level. How can suitable material be made available to meet such varying needs, abilities, and interests? Through more careful guidance in the reading materials of all areas, can more be done to serve, and to capitalize on, the reading needs and interests of adolescents? How can pupils be taught to read not only for thrills and excitement and adventure

but also for information, for ideas, for knowledge of life and people? Are pupils, particularly boys, allowed to range widely enough in their required and supplementary reading?

The lists of most popular books made an interesting study of possible factors influencing pupil choice. Aside from the reading lists at School B, accessibility was perhaps the most obvious influence on pupil choice of vacation reading. In a school where pupils were buying twenty-five-cent, cloth-bound reprints of books commonly found on English reading lists, almost half of the most widely read books were these titles. Also among these most frequently reported books were several novels, plays, and biographies which were not required during the shortened school year but which had been taken from the school bookroom to send home with pupils for voluntary reading. Another very noticeable influence, especially among the girls, was the recent production of motion pictures based on novels and biographies. Certainly plans for improving pupil reading must include means of making a wide variety of good books and magazines readily available, and reading units must be flexible enough to capitalize on the movies currently showing.

In addition to urging discussion of a detailed report of the findings on the questionnaire, the planning committee also stressed the importance of making easily available in all buildings test results which would

have bearing on the reading problem. For instance, at the beginning of his first year in senior high school, each Sophomore's reading scores on the Iowa Silent Reading Test are sent to his English teacher for filing in his reading folder. These profiles at once show the teacher what the pupil's individual reading problems are, and the pupil can see what skills he needs to work on. Median scores made by the Sophomore class as a whole are graphed so that the teachers in all subjects may see at a glance what reading skills they need to work on with this entering group. At the beginning of the semester, too, teachers in the content fields are sent lists of the exceptional readers so that the work may be adjusted to help the inefficient and to stimulate the very bright. These reading scores, as well as those on the Illinois College Aptitude Test and the Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary, are made available in as many places as possible: in the office, in the adviser's folders, and in most cases in the individual's reading folder.

During the second year of the study, content departments made and gave their own tests to measure those skills which they considered most essential in their areas. These tests were valuable training for the teachers who helped to make them, and they distributed among the various departments responsibility for careful training in the skills most essential for high-school pupils. The following outline indicates how testing of, and

training in, specific skills was delegated to the area most vitally concerned.

READING SKILLS TESTED

1. English department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to use the card catalogue
 - c) Ability to read for implied meaning: figures, satire, author's purpose
 - d) Ability to recognize in fiction lack of truth to life
2. Home-economics department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to follow written directions
 - c) Ability to differentiate between the main and the subordinate ideas
 - d) Ability to apply ideas gained in reading
3. Mathematics department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to substitute abstract symbols for numerical values
 - c) Ability to (1) determine the problem and (2) select data
 - d) Ability to get information from tables
4. Science department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to use an index
 - c) Ability to read for details
 - d) Ability to interpret data, charts
5. Social-science department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to find history reference materials in library books
 - c) Ability to read for the central idea
 - d) Ability to get information from graphs
6. Industrial-arts department
 - a) Vocabulary
 - b) Ability to follow written directions
 - c) Ability to read a blueprint or a machine drawing

When the results on these tests were graphed, teachers could easily see what remedial work was necessary. Corrective exercises of all sorts

were made available as samples for teachers unfamiliar with providing training in reading skills, and these were adapted to fit needs. Especially helpful were studies made of the causes underlying reading weaknesses. When the tests were given at the end of the year, much growth could be seen as a result of this reading-conscious instruction.

BUILDING A SOUND READING PROGRAM

After two years spent in defining the skills needed and in evaluating the weaknesses, the departments are working more or less independently toward an achievement of the goals set. In some cases that has meant a re-evaluation of textbooks and courses of study, with the addition of new units of work to bring about more purposeful reading. Reading lists are being built around themes and problems which help the child to get information, experiences, and ideas helpful in real life. To make reading more meaningful, the instructor is learning to make more purposeful assignments so that there is some challenge to curiosity and effort and so that the pupil sees a reason for the task. Reading is being centered more and more around some problem which helps the child to relate the material to his own needs. As frequently as possible, the reading takes into consideration individual differences by making possible a choice of textbooks, often with opposing points of view. If generalizations are to be

used, the instructor is careful to make the concepts clear through the use of sufficient concrete examples.

Gradually classroom libraries are being built up so that pupils may browse and may borrow books for extra reading. Students are encouraged to build libraries of their own. From a small pupil assessment in English classes, magazines such as the *National Geographic*, *Flying*, *Good Housekeeping*, *Popular Mechanics*, *Life*, or others chosen by pupil vote are bought and displayed temptingly. Each month a set of the *Reader's Digest* is ordered so that teachers may use the middle section specially prepared in school editions for reading instruction or may assign articles of interest.

Most departments are working on techniques to help the pupil get more meaning from the material he is asked to read. In all areas there are increased attempts to enlarge pupil vo-

cabularies, with special emphasis on those words basic to an understanding of the concepts of the course. Lately teachers have been attempting especially to clarify the word which is unusually puzzling to the pupil because he thinks it familiar until he meets it in a new sense in one of his subjects. For instance, unless the teacher explains specifically what she means by "romantic" literature, she and her class will be thinking of two quite different meanings. In addition to being taught how to use the dictionary efficiently, pupils are also shown that sometimes the passage they are reading contains a clearer and more explicit explanation than the dictionary would give.

A careful foundation of analysis and evaluation having been laid, we hope that a sound reading program is now being built up as each department works out methods to achieve the goals that it has set for itself.

JUNIOR-COLLEGE TRENDS

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GROWTH OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

THE first two decades of the twentieth century witnessed the growth and the slow development of a new unit in American education—the junior college. By 1920 there were 52 junior colleges with a total enrolment of 8,102.

During the twenty years following 1920 the junior college developed rapidly. Junior colleges multiplied tenfold in number (from 52 in 1920 to 610 in 1940-41) and increased more than twenty-five fold in enrolment (from 8,102 in 1920 to 236,162 in 1939-40). Notable during this period is the shift from the private to the public junior college. In its early history the junior college had been predominantly a private institution. In 1920 four out of five junior colleges were private, and two out of three students attending junior colleges were attending private junior colleges. By 1940, however, the picture had changed. More than three out of five junior colleges were public institutions, and more than two out of three junior-college students were attending public junior colleges. The explanation for this trend is not hard to find. In the early years of the junior-college movement a considerable number of weak four-year colleges became junior colleges. As the years passed, however, an increasing num-

ber of communities opened tax-supported public junior colleges.

The growth of educational institutions in the United States has not, of course, been limited to junior colleges. With technological developments, society has not needed to employ children and youth. This fact, in addition to economic prosperity, society's faith in education, and the desire of parents to give their children a better start in life, has accounted for a development in education in the United States during the past five decades that is without precedent in history.

In 1890, 3 per cent of our youth of eighteen to twenty-one years of age were in college; by 1940 the percentage of youth in college had increased from 3 to 15 per cent. Even more striking is the increase in high-school enrolment. In 1890, 7 per cent of our youth of high-school age were in school; by 1940 this had increased nearly tenfold, to 66 per cent.

In World War I, only 9 per cent of the white draftees had completed high school. In the present war, 40 per cent of the white draftees are high-school graduates. During the twenty-two years from 1917 to 1939, the number of high schools in our country increased 400 per cent and high-school enrolment more than doubled.

Against this background of the notable growth of junior colleges during the past two decades, the expansion of higher education during the past half-century, and the tremendous growth of high schools during the same period, the question naturally comes, "What next?" and particularly, "What next for the junior college?"

In discussing this question, the writer will suggest five junior-college trends which in his judgment can be anticipated during the years ahead.

TREND ONE

During the next two decades the junior college will expand at a rate of acceleration even faster than that of the high school during the two decades following the last war. As we contemplate this expansion of the junior college, we must bear in mind that, in the two decades following 1918, high schools quadrupled in number and more than doubled their enrolment.

In our concern with winning the war, battling inflation, providing more manpower, and producing more food, the problems of the depression years have, since 1941, become increasingly unreal and remote. Yet just ten years ago unemployment and the youth problem were demanding the attention of our nation. More than four million of the youth from sixteen to twenty-four years of age who were out of school were out of work during the mid-thirties. In 1937, 40 per cent of the age group from fifteen to nineteen who were out of school were also out of work. In other words,

during the 1930's society repeatedly said to youth, "No, we have no work for you," and, on the other hand, society said, "No, youth, we have no school for you."

It is this background of facts which caused both the American Youth Commission and the National Resources Planning Board to urge the extension and the expansion of public education so that the final years of secondary education (the junior-college years) can be available to all youth who want them and whose records indicate that they can and will profit from additional educational experience. The National Resources Planning Board goes so far as to suggest the need for junior colleges which will enrol between nine hundred thousand and one million students (in contrast with a total junior-college enrolment of less than two hundred and fifty thousand in 1940).

Is there any evidence that these general recommendations will be put into effect?

During the past two decades the influence of organized labor on national, state, and local issues has increased significantly. The expanded influence of labor makes particularly significant the resolutions adopted by the American Federation of Labor at its 1943 convention in Boston:

Resolved, That the American Federation of Labor go on record in favor of the junior college as a means of offering opportunity for a higher education to all young people of this nation with limited resources, and be it further

Resolved, That the American Federation

of Labor promote suitable activities tending to encourage the establishment of such educational facilities throughout the entire nation.¹

.... where local conditions permit [the Federation] urges affiliated bodies to co-operate with school authorities in establishing and supporting such institutions.²

Various states throughout the nation are making plans and setting aside funds for meeting a variety of postwar needs. Notable among these states is New York State, and notable among the plans for New York are those in education. More specifically, New York is preparing for the establishment of approximately eighteen tax-supported institutes or junior colleges. We may expect the announcement of similar plans for junior-college expansion in other states.

TREND TWO

The junior-college curriculum will increasingly reflect the fact that the junior college is primarily a terminal institution. The typical junior college has in the past offered a course of study that is dominantly college preparatory, and up to 80 per cent of the students have enrolled in that curriculum. Curiously enough, however, when the student has left junior college, he has not continued in an institution of higher learning. His schooling has been complete. In other words, our junior colleges have pre-

sented the paradoxical situation of devoting their major energies to preparation for advanced work when advanced work was actually needed by no more than one-fourth of the students.

That the junior colleges themselves recognize that basic curriculum changes must be made is indicated by the fact that for the past four years a major activity of the American Association of Junior Colleges has been its Terminal Education Study. Financed by a grant from the General Education Board and supervised by a co-ordinating committee of educators from all sections of the country, this study has dramatized the importance of the terminal-education function, has provided for an exchange of information and practices in terminal education, and has encouraged the development of plans for serving the terminal-education function in the junior college.

After the war, as the junior college develops, as it comes of age, it seems clear that we may expect junior-college curriculums to be built increasingly in terms of the actual needs of youth, in terms of such functional areas as citizenship, physical and mental health, appreciation of the beautiful, consumer problems, philosophy of life, vocational orientation, vocational training, home and family life.

TREND THREE

Although the junior college will largely be terminal in character, im-

¹ *Report of the Proceedings of the Sixty-third Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor Held at Boston, Massachusetts, October 4 to 14, Inclusive, 1943*, p. 244. Washington: American Federation of Labor.

² *Ibid.*, p. 587.

proved provisions will be made for transferring students of ability to colleges, universities, and other schools for advanced study. As the junior college comes of age, the problem of transfer must move toward a solution—a solution based not on the titles and sequence of courses pursued but based rather on the quality of the student's work.

TREND FOUR

Predominantly the junior college of tomorrow will be a public junior college.

We have observed the trend of the past two decades. In 1920, 37 per cent of the students in junior college were in public junior colleges. By 1940 this percentage had increased to 72. I know no reason for this trend to change. In fact, the recommendations of the American Youth Commission and those of the National Resources Planning Board highlight the need for the *public* junior college. Likewise, plans for postwar education in New York repeatedly refer to plans for additional *public* junior colleges.

TREND FIVE

As the public junior college expands, we may expect an increasing percentage of four-year junior colleges, that is, junior colleges which include Grades XI through XIV. In a recent study Koos reports the results of interviews with 103 administrators in public-school systems having junior colleges.³ The

³ Leonard V. Koos, "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 215-27.

significant fact in Koos's survey is that, whereas today only 5 per cent of our public junior colleges are four-year junior colleges, 59 per cent of the administrators responsible for public junior colleges favor the inclusion of Grades XI through XIV in the junior college. The reason for favoring the four-year junior college most often given by the administrators in Koos's study is that it "encourages continuity of the curriculum." In other words, the judgment of those administrators is that having a four-year junior college will encourage more students to continue their education beyond Grade XII, because in the four-year junior college there is no natural stopping point at the close of Grade XII. With the opinion of school administrators as it is and with the reasons justifying the four-year junior college as strong as they are, we can anticipate an increased development of the four-year public junior college.

ROLE OF THE PRIVATE JUNIOR COLLEGE

As one examines these trends, he is impressed by the anticipated expansion of the *public* junior college. Conspicuous by its absence in these statements of trends is reference to the *private* junior college. Does this mean that the private junior college is on the way out?

With the anticipated development and expansion of the public junior college, private junior colleges must

indeed face the question: "If tax-supported junior colleges offer tuition-free opportunities for education, what excuse do we have for existing?"

Clearly, *the private junior college can justify its existence only if it makes contributions which the public institution does not or cannot make.* Within this framework there are at least three services which the private junior college can and must perform.

First, the private junior college has a leadership function. The junior college, both private and public, must offer its students an opportunity to determine their individual interests, needs, and goals and to plan and pursue an educational program in terms of these needs and of the needs of society. In doing this, the private junior college must hold to the ideal of providing these opportunities to an extent and to a degree not attained by the usual public junior college. Otherwise the private junior college is not justified in expecting students to leave the junior college in their home communities and to attend at considerable expense a private junior college. This compulsion to maintain a superior program must remain on the private junior college.

Second, the individual private junior college has an opportunity to develop a program of religious education. Our nation and the world today, as never before, need men and women with spiritual insight and with a sound philosophy of values. As we look forward to the postwar years, the private junior college has

in this area an opportunity for development which is denied to most tax-supported educational institutions. A number of private junior colleges are today giving religion a place of central emphasis in their curriculums. Our nation and the crisis faced by society unite in demanding from our private junior colleges not only expanded programs of religious education but especially programs of greater effectiveness and vitality, programs which actually lead students to achieve a philosophy of life based on sound spiritual values.

Third, the private junior college has an experimental and research function. If junior-college enrolments expand to one million and if the curriculums of junior colleges are to be remade (as they must be) in terms of the functional life-needs of students, extensive experimentation and research will be needed as the basis on which to chart directions of development. Financing research and experimentation in tax-supported institutions is difficult and often impossible; yet during the next two decades the public junior college will need the results of research and experimentation as never before. Here lies an opportunity for the private junior college to chart new directions of curriculum development, to carry out experimental research programs, and to share with junior colleges everywhere (and particularly the rapidly expanding public junior college) the results of its findings and experiences.

WHAT SHOULD THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN EXPECT OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL?

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FOR at least a decade before this country found itself engaged in a global war, recognition had been given to the fact that significant social and economic changes demanded radical new concepts of the education needed by our people. Curriculum planning began to emphasize the growth of the individual and a program of studies which would develop him according to his abilities and needs. Training the child to take his proper place in society became a major objective, the attainment of which demanded enriched curriculums, careful guidance, and training in the use of leisure time. These challenging new ideas brought a greater need of extensive materials and their proper administration, and the school library began an era of development.

At present, educators are looking forward to the postwar world and its needs and are re-evaluating current educational services and planning new ones. There is increasing evidence of a growing recognition of the broader services which the school library can render to the educational program of the institution which it serves.

Assuming this recognition of the broader concept of the function of the school library and a librarian who un-

derstands and accepts her responsibilities for providing the very best possible library service to every school child, what help may she expect from her school principal?

A library-minded principal, one whose interest goes far beyond the fulfillment of prescribed standards, who sees the need for library service closely integrated with the entire teaching program, will stimulate both library and teaching staffs to make the library an important factor in education. The lack of interest common in the past may be accounted for, to some extent, by lack of understanding. Newer courses on administration which incorporate units dealing with the place of the school library in education, recent articles in professional journals, and an awareness of the profits that are being realized by outstanding school systems with adequate library service are doing much to produce understanding, and a greater interest should accompany more complete understanding.

STATUS OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

Certification for school library work in most states requires of the school librarian sufficient credits in the field of education to make her conversant

with current educational objectives and the best teaching methods, such knowledge being deemed necessary to an understanding of educational problems. It is to the principal that the librarian must turn to insure a similar understanding on the part of the faculty of the educational values, functions, and possibilities of the school library. It is his responsibility to state the philosophy of the school and its objectives and then to work out with the librarian the contributions possible for the library to make in attaining school objectives.

Even though convinced in a high degree of the worth of the profession and of its contribution to the school, the librarian needs the moral support which the principal can offer. Trained as she should be in both cultural and special fields, she is expected to have knowledge of, and interest in, all subjects of the curriculum. Trained also in the specialized field of library service, she welcomes and expects from the principal the same interest, understanding, encouragement, and educational leadership which is offered to other specialists on the staff: the teacher of English, social studies, or Latin; the shop instructor; or the athletic coach. This help in interpreting the library to others, as well as the recognition by the principal of meritorious work, is appreciated and contributes greatly to the spirit and the enthusiasm needed by the librarian in her efforts.

The conscientious librarian is interested in a competent library per-

sonnel. A poorly trained school librarian without vision, ability, or scholarship is as harmful to the library profession as is the unworthy person in any other profession. Consequently the majority of school librarians desire the selection of new librarians of character, training, and broad cultural background. The appointed librarian asks for help and consideration for her professional growth by having arrangements made for attendance at professional meetings, for visits to public and other school libraries, for participation in experimental work and study, and for adequate salary to permit such professional activities. Reasonable adjustments of schedule to allow occasional relief for such participation make for professional progress and a live library program.

It is important to the librarian that she be given a standing on the faculty which will definitely bring her into closer relationship with the teachers and that her status be clearly defined. Ranking her as a departmental head, if such organization exists, or as a senior teacher will insure her participation in curriculum planning and her membership on policy-forming committees. Only by knowing what is going on in such committee work is the librarian able to serve the school properly. The possibility of working with these committees will, in many instances, demand a radical change in library organization to provide time for such activities by freeing the librarian from clerical routine. Her

schedule should be planned with the same consideration that is given to that of the individual teacher.

INTEGRATING THE CLASSROOM AND THE LIBRARY

Having provided the librarian with a schedule which affords time for the activities mentioned above, it becomes necessary to turn next to a consideration of pupil schedules which will allow the greatest use of library facilities. The co-operation of the librarian with the principal on this problem will provide staggered schedules for classes that require the use of the library as a laboratory, an equal distribution of study halls throughout the day, or lighter study-hall enrolments during periods when subject classes may need the use of the library.

As to library quarters, it goes without saying that proper housing facilitates service. If crowded conditions curtail services, the administrator must take steps to provide other quarters which will meet the demands of the school. Acquaintance with standards and careful planning often make possible the remodeling of existing libraries to provide more practical arrangements. Some forward-looking school systems have on file drawings and recommendations for library quarters for schools of different types and sizes. Certainly, if a new building is contemplated, the principal should insist that the librarian be allowed to make recommendations concerning the library. Too many college

and high-school libraries today are beautiful examples of architecture totally unsuited to effective library service.

Planning suitable quarters is only one phase of the total planning which principal and librarian should constantly carry on. In addition to decisions on current problems there should be long-term planning: a policy of book selection which aims, over a period of years, to balance the collections and to build up new departments; the addition of new services, such as the administration of audiovisual materials; projected plans for more modern equipment; more help, possible library internships, or a long-term budget plan. This type of planning should guarantee a more unified and progressive library administration.

The responsibility for procuring funds to carry out plans belongs to the principal. In planning the year's budget, he should include a specific appropriation for library use. The librarian will expect to supply him with statistics of use and circulation, with recommended standards for library budgets, and with prepared statements showing costs and needs. Since it is the principal who must defend the request for financial support for the library to the superintendent and to the board of education, he should be fully equipped with knowledge of the work of the library in order that he may properly interpret the value of its service to the educational program.

The librarian should expect the principal to set aside time for confer-

ences on new book orders whether the books are ordered once a month or more often. Such an arrangement enables the librarian to interpret the buying policy to the principal and furnishes to the principal an acquaintance with the book collection and a partial picture of the curriculum and other reading demands on the library.

The principal's support of the library as a vital part of the educational system is extremely important. He is responsible for assuming the leadership in developing an integrated program of teaching which will co-ordinate all the agencies of education, including the school library. With his realization of the educational importance of the library and his acquaintance with its resources and policies, the principal, in his supervision of teaching, is in a position to point out to the teachers the value of the library as a primary aspect of education and to suggest ways in which its materials may be utilized. He may help the librarian as well by passing on to her observations that he makes in the classrooms concerning teachers' needs, possibilities of library aid, and departmental materials suitable for library exhibits. Since the principal is less bound by definite schedules than either the teachers or the librarian, he becomes, in his supervisory capacity, a valuable liaison officer, able to initiate and encourage closer integration of classroom and library.

Careful attention is always needed

to plans for teaching the use of books and of libraries. It is impossible for the librarian to impose on a group of teachers a program for teaching library skills, nor is it possible or desirable for her to give such instruction in the form of isolated lessons. She must look to the principal to take the lead in developing an integrated plan of library instruction with carefully outlined objectives. To attain the desired ends, this program will be planned as a co-operative effort of both the teachers and the librarian, with instruction equalized for all at the various grade levels. Certain basic instruction will be the librarian's contribution, while the teaching of other skills will be motivated by the needs of the pupils as they arise. The overall planning will insure the mastery of certain desirable skills and attitudes at definite intervals.

THE LIBRARIAN'S SERVICE TO THE TEACHERS

The role of the librarian in instructional supervision is a topic which offers opportunity for stimulating study. Much depends on the personality and the educational and professional qualifications of the librarian and on her standing on the faculty. An alert librarian, who is professionally trained and has a broad cultural and educational background and who has the confidence and the respect of the teachers and the administration, has a definite contribution to make to instructional supervision. The li-

brarian is in a position to offer aid by calling attention to materials for enriching instruction, by observing and reporting pupil attitudes and responses, by consulting with instructors and their classes on methods of attacking new library problems, by assisting classes in their search for materials, and by furnishing to teachers books and other materials for professional growth. The principal owes his librarian a complete understanding of what is expected of her in analyzing and appraising the instructional program and in influencing its direction.

At the same time the librarian should have clarification as to the role that she is to play in encouraging and stimulating the professional growth of teachers. Many teachers in our schools today were graduated from colleges at a time when little or no attention was given to preparing them to use library tools or to acquainting them with means of keeping in touch with up-to-date materials. The librarian will be able to administer a professional library if the principal will find means to provide it; working together, they will be able to stimulate and direct its use. By means of annotated book lists, notices, and talks, and by the routing of professional periodicals through the appropriate channels, the librarian can provide publicity for the materials. Her services can be further utilized in workshops or other forms of in-service conferences or demonstrations, if the principal so directs. Again it

must be emphasized that the initiative for any development along these lines must of necessity come from the administration.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM AND THE LIBRARY

The place of the library in the guidance program of the modern school is increasingly recognized, no matter how simple or elaborate the basic guidance organization may be. The librarian expects the principal to recognize the possibilities, to include her in important guidance planning, and to supply her with the necessary data for making her contributions. A few of these contributions may be mentioned.

The orientation of a class of new pupils should include an introduction to the library and its services. After a school year has begun, notice of new entrants should be given to the library as well as to the classroom teachers, in order that the new pupil may be assured library service from the beginning. All records of pupils which will assist the librarian in knowing and serving pupils as individuals should be made readily available. Knowledge of a pupil's ability, his aptitudes, his achievements in standardized tests, his scholastic standing, and anecdotal or other records which explain and set forth his personality and interests are requisite to understanding and to sympathetic social, vocational, and reading guidance.

The librarian should be provided

with lists of exceptional pupils in need of enriched programs as well as with notices of failing pupils or those with peculiar difficulties who need special attention. The principal should sponsor frequent conferences of guidance and library personnel on means of assisting individuals to attain their greatest possible growth.

The principal and the guidance directors are in positions to obtain a census of the primary vocational interests of the pupils and of the institutions of higher learning which they hope to attend. Such information should be passed on immediately to the librarian in order that the supply of vocational, occupational, and educational materials in the library may meet the needs of the student body.

In addition to directing study activities in the library and assisting in the teaching of library skills, the librarian is expected to stimulate reading interests and to serve as adviser on recreational as well as curriculum reading. To do an effective job of reading guidance, the librarian must know the pupils as well as the books. The ideal situation provides her with access to information concerning pupils and with a library collection which will meet the interests and the needs of every child. To have the means to capitalize on an interest or to supply a request at the moment it arises sometimes means a step in the making or the holding of the library habit.

In case the librarian and the principal have failed to secure sufficient funds to realize this ideal, they must

take steps to provide a suitable substitute. Co-operation between the school and the public library becomes more than ever desirable, for they must share the responsibility of supplying materials and furnishing reading guidance. The problem should be carefully investigated and planned for by the heads of both institutions, and the school librarian, with her knowledge of pupils and their interests, should be given time to work with pupils wherever the materials are available.

If the school collection is adequate for most needs, the public library visits may be used to introduce pupils to books which will supplement reading interests already stimulated and to foster, while the reading interest is at its height, the habit of using other library collections.

One other item which helps in the formation of desirable library habits should be mentioned. It is the matter of removing the barriers which so many schools erect between the study hall and the library. Regardless of the increased difficulties of hall supervision, access to the library should be made easy. If a teacher has stimulated an interest which requires library use, there should be no regulation to prohibit that teacher from allowing a library visit. If work is finished in a study hall and a pupil wishes to read for twenty minutes, it is a desirable situation for him to be able to do so. Naturally, this is an administrative problem, but the library-minded principal will constantly seek ways and

means of clearing the red tape from the path to the library.

EVALUATION OF THE LIBRARY

One of the best means of presenting a true picture of the library service to the administration is by means of monthly reports. Statistics showing attendance; subject classes scheduled in the library; lessons taught; exhibits, lists, and book talks of the month; and circulation figures by subjects should be accompanied by a brief description of important activities, plans, and needs. The librarian should appreciate the opportunity of preparing such a statement regularly; the principal should give the statement a careful reading and should discuss with the librarian its interpretation and the possible action thereon. No better way of assembling agenda for such conferences can be asked than the monthly report.

Discussions of this nature will naturally give rise to a recognition, on the part of both, of the benefits to be gained from continuous evaluation of the library collection and services. The principal, alive to educational needs, and the librarian, conversant with library research, together can

devise means of experimentation and measurement of the values of both old and new methods. The librarian seeks help and encouragement from the principal and the faculty for testing new services, for making case studies of individuals, for reading studies, and for trying out means of improving existing methods.

Finally, the librarian asks that the principal spend at least a portion of his visiting time in the school library. A minute or two in passing every day and a longer visit at frequent intervals will give him a good sampling of the activity which takes place there and of the service which is being offered. It will give at once a surprising picture of pupil attitudes and study habits, of the response to classroom teaching as evidenced by library assignments, and of the working-together of pupils and faculty in an atmosphere conducive to reading and study. These visits will be evidences of interest and will reward the principal with information important to his administration of the educational offerings of the school and to his interpretation of these offerings to the community.

HOW VOCATIONAL-AGRICULTURE GRADUATES BECOME ESTABLISHED IN FARMING

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A STUDY has recently been made at the University of Minnesota to determine how graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture in Minnesota have actually become established in farming. Its primary purpose was to provide helpful information to teachers of vocational agriculture in developing an instructional program realistically pointed toward establishment of students in farming.

The young men included in the study were graduates from twenty-one high-school departments of vocational agriculture in Minnesota, all of which had been in operation ten years or more. The selected departments were situated in schools of varying sizes and in different types of farming areas in the state. The teachers of vocational agriculture in these schools reported a total of 3,300 graduates. Of these, 58.2 per cent were engaged in agricultural occupations, distributed as follows: 18.9 per cent farming for themselves, 28.8 per cent on farms but not fully established, 8.6 per cent in occupations related to farming, and 1.9 per cent in agricultural colleges. The remaining 41.8 per cent included 32.8 per cent in non-agricultural occupations, 3.2 per cent

in nonagricultural colleges, 1.0 per cent deceased, and 4.8 per cent unaccounted for.

The teachers in the twenty-one co-operating centers were asked to gather data from the 624 persons (18.9 per cent) who had already become established in their own right as owner-operators, part owners, renters, or full partners. Usable returns were obtained from 203 persons, or 32.5 per cent of those farming for themselves. Ordinarily the co-operating teachers solicited the data by mail, a method that accounts for the comparatively small return. However, the investigator, who interviewed forty-eight of the graduates in eleven of the centers, is of the opinion that the persons who submitted mail returns are typical of the entire group.

The respondents were almost equally divided among those who were farming for themselves, in the capacity of owner-operators, part owners, or renters, and those who were farming as full partners with others.

PROCEDURES IN BECOMING ESTABLISHED

Establishment in farming is ordinarily progressive, advancing through specific stages that lead toward the

rental and the eventual ownership of land. Establishment on the progressive basis means also the improvement and the possible expansion of any farming status in which the individual may find himself. Recognition of the methods whereby young men get started and make progress in farming is essential to the development of a practical program of classroom and home instruction in vocational agriculture. Some of the specific findings in this study which are significant to the planning and conducting of instructional programs should be of interest to workers in other fields of secondary education.

Home background.—Of the graduates who had become fully established in farming, 95 per cent were sons of farmers. Since the present study was confined to the group established in farming, no investigation was made of the occupations of parents whose sons had not put to practical use the training that they had received in vocational agriculture. Other investigations support the present findings. A study of 180 graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture made by Draheim in New York shows clearly that young men whose parents were born on farms are more likely to become established in farming than those whose parents were born elsewhere.¹ The

same conclusion was reached in a follow-up study made by Gregory of 636 graduates from departments of vocational agriculture in Indiana high schools.² In the latter study only 6 per cent of the town-reared young men entered farming as contrasted with 60 per cent of the farm-reared youth.

Graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture who enter and progress in farming come largely from farm families. Nearly half of the farms of the owner-renters (owner-operators, part owners, and renters) had previously been operated by parents of the graduates, whereas a somewhat smaller proportion (41 per cent) of the farms had actually been owned by the families of the present operators. For partners the proportions were higher, for 77 per cent of the farms were previously operated by parents and 70 per cent were previously owned within the families.

Reasons for selecting farming.—When these young men were given an opportunity to indicate why they chose to farm, their primary reasons were, in order of indorsement: possession of a better knowledge of farming than of anything else, independence of the farmer, opportunity to work with livestock and growing crops, opportunity to take over the home farm, and interest stimulated through the curriculum in vocational agriculture.

¹ E. R. Draheim, "Factors of Parental Assistance and Co-operation Affecting the Establishment of Sons in Farming and Other Occupations." Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Cornell University, 1941.

² Raymond William Gregory, "Factors Influencing Establishment in Farming of Former Students of Vocational Agriculture." Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Cornell University, 1937.

Previous experience.—The average number of years since graduation for the 203 respondents was 7.1. During this period the group had spent an average of 6.5 years in farm work, with 36 persons reporting from less than one year to nine years on non-farming jobs. Before reaching their established status, 164 had assisted their parents for an average of 4.5 years, 24 worked as hired hands for an average of 2.0 years, and 94 rented land during an average of 3.7 years. In a study of 362 selected cases in Ohio, Kenestruck found that it took approximately nine years after leaving high school, on the average, for graduates in vocational agriculture to attain the equivalent of a share-renting status.³ This figure accords well with the present findings.

Savings and investments.—At the time of high-school graduation more than half of these young men had some possessions, of which livestock was reported most frequently, followed by insurance, savings, and farm machines. Forty-three per cent indicated that the possession of some of the livestock which they owned as established farmers was traceable to farming programs conducted while in high school. At the time the study was

made, 42 per cent reported that they still possessed some of their previous earnings at the time they started to farm for themselves. The major portion of these earnings came from working on farms for wages, supplemented by income from livestock and crop enterprises.

Assistance in becoming established.—The graduates were of the opinion that direct assistance received from members of their families was a most important factor in helping them become established. Seventy-five per cent of the owner-renters and 57 per cent of the partners reported assistance from parents or other relatives. Assistance peculiar to the owner-renters was the establishment of outside credit for purchasing land and equipment, whereas partners characteristically were given the use of land and livestock.

Eighty per cent of the owner-renters and 34 per cent of the partners had previously obtained, or were making use of, loans from local banks and other sources. In the former group a few persons had dealt with Federal Land Banks for the obvious purpose of purchasing land. In the main, however, the loans obtained by both groups were used for the purchase of livestock and equipment. Inheritance was an unimportant factor in the establishment of the 203 young men. Only nine reported inheritance of any money and twelve of any property at their median age of 24.2 years.

A study made by the American Vocational Association in twelve vocational-agriculture departments in Penn-

³ Harold George Kenestruck, "Some Economic Factors Affecting the Establishment of All-Day Students of Vocational Agriculture in Ohio in Farming." Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Ohio State University, 1936. (An abstract of this thesis may be found in *Abstracts of Dissertations Presented by Candidates for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Summer Quarter, 1936*. Ohio State University Abstracts of Doctors' Dissertations, No. 22. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1937.)

sylvania provides further information concerning the types of assistance received from parents.⁴ One-fifth of the graduates interviewed said that their parents had been instrumental in furnishing feed and fertilizer and in providing the use of buildings, work horses, and other forms of capital. One-tenth of the fathers enlarged their farm business to provide greater opportunities for their sons.

Problems encountered.—The matter of building up savings and other personal assets was considered to be the most important problem encountered by the graduates in becoming established. As might be anticipated, the securing of land was a problem with more of the owner-renters than with the partners, a majority of whom were in partnership with their parents.

The owner-renters occupied a higher proportion of grain farms, whereas the partners occupied a higher proportion of livestock farms. Two reasons may account for this difference: (1) sufficient funds may not have been available to the owner-renters for the purchase of much livestock, and (2) this group had not farmed long enough to develop large herds.

The ranking of problems encountered in becoming established as shown by an Iowa study⁵ was some-

what similar, for finances occupied first position, followed by the securing of land, production problems, provision for housing, securing livestock, management problems, and securing equipment.

There was no significant difference between the percentages of owner-renters and the percentages of partners who used tractors for farmwork and motors for operating farmstead equipment. The partners, however, had more frequent access to conveniences, including electricity, furnaces, running water, and indoor toilets. This contrast may be attributed also to the fact that most of the partners were operating farms owned by their parents.

Future plans.—Eighty-three per cent of the owner-renters and 67 per cent of the partners expect to farm indefinitely. In becoming further established, some of the partners proposed to take over the home farms, others expected to buy the partner's share in the business, and still others expected to rent land in addition to the home farms. More of the owner-renters than of the partners were looking forward to the purchase of farms or additional land. Both groups mentioned frequently the following steps in their plans for becoming further established: the expansion of dairy, livestock, and poultry enterprises and the renting of additional land.

Evaluation of instruction.—In evaluating the benefits received from their high-school instruction in vocational agriculture, the graduates ranked suggested outcomes in the following

⁴ *Occupational Adjustments of Vocational School Graduates*. Research Bulletin No. 1 of the American Vocational Association. Washington: American Vocational Association, Inc., 1940.

⁵ Sam Dobervich, "Problems Encountered in Becoming Established in Farming by Young Men Trained in Vocational Agriculture." Unpublished Master's thesis, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, 1940.

order: learned improved methods of farm management, learned to appreciate farming as a career, developed abilities to co-operate with others, acquired operative skills, and acquired interests in improved living standards.

The graduates were asked to suggest how their courses in vocational agriculture might have been suited more fully to meet their present needs. Conspicuous among the answers to this question were the following recommendations: more emphasis on farm mechanics, more recognition of management problems confronting the farmer, and extension of the farming programs of students.

IMPLICATIONS FOR INSTRUCTION

This study has explored some of the problems confronting graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture as they enter farming and as they progress in the occupation of farming. The evidence has many implications for the program of vocational agriculture, a few of which are noted below.

Personnel of high-school classes.—It is obvious that graduates from high-school departments of vocational agriculture who enter and progress in farming come largely from farm families. This fact suggests the advisability of discouraging promiscuous registrations by nonfarm boys in vocational agriculture, the aim of which is to train for proficiency in farming.

Class instruction.—The instruction

of high-school classes in vocational agriculture should emphasize the managerial aspects of farming and should be supplemented by exploratory experiences, by training in skills, and by the development of a wholesome philosophy toward farm life. Such an instructional program suggests group work involving matters of common interest to all members of the class and individual instruction in the problems peculiar to each student and to his family.

Farming programs.—There is evidence to indicate that the farming programs which students pursue while in high school contribute to their becoming established in farming. Some of the earnings derived from production projects are available for use upon entrance into farming, and some of the livestock possessed at that time is derived from foundation stock obtained while in high school. It would seem, therefore, that the boys would be still better fitted to enter the occupation if their farming activities were of greater variety and scope and were to include more long-time projects.

Partnerships.—The development of partnerships should be stressed for at least two reasons: because it is a logical step in the expansion of farming programs for students of vocational agriculture and because it is a step which is common to a large percentage of young men who enter farming. Specifically, partnerships provide opportunities to accumulate livestock, equipment, or cash, and experiences which will be useful subsequently in

establishment as a renter or as an owner-operator.

To be successful, partnerships require amiable relationships within the family. Teachers should acquaint themselves sufficiently with family situations to be in a position to encourage the planning of farming programs which will work to the advantage of both the boy and his parents.

Credit.—Although the establishment of credit did not appear as a major problem in this study, it is, nevertheless, an important factor in becoming established in farming. Where to obtain credit and how much credit can be used advantageously are questions which should be carefully explored in vocational-agriculture classes and in advising with graduates as they have need for credit.

Teachers of vocational agriculture ought also to devote more attention to developing habits of thrift on the part of their students. Young men who manage to accumulate a small amount of savings, who accumulate livestock and equipment, who know how to invest wisely, and who have sound programs of insurance will find it easy to obtain credit and to finance their obligations as they progress in establishment.

Placement.—Assisting young men in finding placement opportunities which are suited to their individual situations is difficult. For persons who can take over home farms the problem is somewhat simplified; yet these persons must decide whether it is to

their advantage to operate the family farms, and they must work out arrangements satisfactory to them and to their parents.

Teachers of vocational agriculture should consider themselves as liaison persons working with their product on the one hand and with the landlords on the other. In addition to providing the best possible training for young men, this responsibility requires that the teachers must gain the confidence of persons and agencies who are in a position to rent or to sell farms to the graduates.

Postschool instruction.—The fact that only a third of the graduates included in this study attended adult classes in agriculture after leaving high school must be attributed, in part, to the lack of such offerings by several of the co-operating schools. There is a real challenge to provide effective instruction for the young men through organized classes, meeting at infrequent intervals during the year.

While such a group would be primarily interested in problems relating to establishment in farming, including the expanding of herds, the locating of farms to rent or to buy, and the obtaining of credit, they ought also to be given opportunities to discuss matters pertaining to the establishment of a home and to participation in various rural organizations and community activities. Such a comprehensive program of secondary and adult education would lead toward satisfying rural living predicated on vocational efficiency.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION¹

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THIS list of references represents a selection from titles related to higher education that have come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1943, and June 30, 1944. As in previous lists, selection has necessarily been made along somewhat arbitrary lines because space does not permit the inclusion of all titles that might be worthy of attention. Practically all books, monographs, and pamphlets have been included with the exception of annual reports, year-books and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to problems of higher education, and institutional histories.

Selection among the articles has been limited to those published in professional journals during the year, and the choice has been based chiefly on the significance of the contribution to new knowledge. As a general principle, the list omits articles that provide only a résumé of material available elsewhere; articles that are merely discussions or presentations of personal opinions, however authoritative; and news notes and papers describing practices in a single institution.

¹ See also Item 535 (Boardman) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1944, number of the *School Review*.

The rate of publication of research articles in the field of higher education has during 1943-44 been reduced still further below the low point established in 1942-43. There has been an upswing, however, in the publication of books, especially those dealing with the broad problems of a liberal education. Many of these books have been published with the apparent idea of attracting a reading public somewhat more general and extensive than the limited circle of college professors and administrative officers.

Problems of higher education in the war and the postwar period continue to hold a prominent place in educational publication. Descriptions of plans and programs in this area are taking definite form, and some evaluative research is beginning to appear, such as the series of studies on acceleration at Ohio State University.

One journal in the field of higher education, *University Administration Quarterly*, which was launched as a new venture in October, 1941, has not been published since the issue of Volume II, Number 2, in the winter of 1943. Conspicuous also is the absence of the usual research bulletins on higher education from the United States Office of Education.

558. AYDELOTTE, FRANK. *Breaking the Academic Lock Step*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+184.

Draws on material gathered from more than 125 colleges and universities to describe the many variations of provision for educating the intellectually superior student and problems connected with honors-work plans.

559. BADGER, HENRY G., and FRAZIER, BENJAMIN W. "Effects of the War upon College Personnel," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIX (October, 1943), 5-17. (Also appeared as Circular No. 217 of the United States Office of Education.)

Reports data as of October, 1942, from about two-thirds of the higher institutions in the United States concerning noteworthy changes in the number and the composition of staffs, in enrolments, and in finance.

560. BADGER, HENRY G., and FRAZIER, BENJAMIN W. "Effects of the War upon Colleges and Universities, 1943-44," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXX (Summer, 1944), 264-83.

Presents a second report, based on data as of October, 1943, for about half of the higher institutions of the United States.

561. BAKER, ROBERT OSBORNE. "Instructional Salary Costs per Student Credit Hour," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIX (October, 1943), 61-67.

Reports a study made at the University of Kansas City covering a four-year period and characterized in general by rising costs for the entire institution.

562. BENEZET, LOUIS T. *General Education in the Progressive College*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 884. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. viii+190.

Treats in general terms the approaches to general education found in American colleges, presents the experimental programs of Sarah Lawrence, Bennington, and Bard, and points out the significance of certain conclusions for college education.

563. BUTTERFIELD, WILLIAM H. *How To Use Letters in College Public Relations*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+182.

Suggests a large variety of situations in which personal letters may be utilized in the development of support for, and interest in, an institution.

564. CARLSON, ANTON J. "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVIII (October, 1943), 154-64. (Reprinted in *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXX [February, 1944], 41-58.)

Reports the findings concerning faculty, budget, survey courses, physical equipment, and the use of library resources and visual aids in the sciences and points out certain implications for liberal education.

565. CLELAND, J. S. "Inbreeding in College and University Faculties," *School and Society*, LIX (March 18, 1944), 193-95.

Analyzes the catalogue statements concerning the staff members of thirty-six institutions and finds that a substantial percentage are teaching in the institution from which they received their Bachelor's degree.

566. CROSS, A. C. "Credit in the Various States for Training or Experience Gained during Military Service," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVIII (October, 1943), 178-84.

Reports practices in operation or planned in twenty-two states replying to an inquiry.

567. DURLINGER, GLENN W. "The Prediction of College Success—A Summary of Recent Findings," *Journal of the Ameri-*

can Association of Collegiate Registrars, XIX (October, 1943), 68-78.

Considers studies involving general aptitude tests, general achievement tests, personality tests, high-school averages, and combinations of these.

568. ECKELBERRY, R. H. "Postwar Planning," *Journal of Higher Education*, XV (June, 1944), 315-18.

Reports the agencies involved and the method of their appointment, the role of the faculty, and the scope and the progress of planning in 450 institutions replying to a questionnaire in a "quick survey."

569. EDWARDS, MARCIA. *Studies in American Graduate Education*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1944. Pp. xvi+72.

Reports findings from interviews at twelve leading graduate schools concerning a number of features of the program of graduate instruction and concludes that future improvement will come only through the influence of individual scholars.

570. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "The Plight of the Colleges," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXIX (October, 1943), 508-17.

Presents data to show that, in general, the smaller colleges have not received the benefit of having a military unit and raises the question whether the small colleges ought not have some protection.

571. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Status of the Junior College in the United States, 1943-44," *School and Society*, LIX (June 10, 1944), 412-15.

Presents the annual statistical report on numbers of institutions and enrolments.

572. EPLER, STEPHEN EDWARD. *Honorary Degrees*. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. 224.

Investigates the status of honorary degrees, past and present, through historical study of practices at seven universities; through study of contemporary practice in more

than two hundred institutions; and by analysis of the opinions of college presidents, businessmen, farm and labor leaders, and journalists.

573. GOSSMAN, JUANITA. "Foreign-Language Requirements in 100 Colleges: 1942," *School and Society*, LVIII (July 31, 1943), 78-79.

Finds that 72 per cent of the institutions make no foreign-language requirement for admission but that 84 per cent of them require study in this field before the Bachelor's degree will be awarded.

574. GREENE, THEODORE M., FRIES, CHARLES C., WRISTON, HENRY M., and DIGHTON, WILLIAM. *Liberal Education Re-examined*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xiv+134.

Scrutinizes the nature of American democracy and the chief ends of education therein, sets forth a pattern for liberal education, and criticizes each level of education in the light of that pattern.

575. HAGGARD, W. W. "Some Freshmen Describe the Desirable College Teacher," *School and Society*, LVIII (September 25, 1943), 238-40.

Reports an investigation in a teachers' college and compares its results with those of another study involving college Seniors, the two studies being in substantial agreement.

576. HENDERSON, ALGO D. *Vitalizing Liberal Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xii+202.

Treats the purpose, the content, and the method of the college program, the function of the faculty, and the method of organizing to achieve the objectives.

577. HUGHES, RAYMOND M. *A Manual for Trustees of Colleges and Universities*. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College Press, 1943. Pp. x+166.

Discusses the role of the college or university board of control with respect to its responsibility for the custodianship of

property and for the determination of general institutional policy in the various areas of administrative concern.

578. JENKINS, MARTIN D. "Current Trends and Events of National Importance in Negro Education: Section A, Enrolment in Institutions of Higher Education for Negroes, 1942-43," *Journal of Negro Education*, XII (Fall, 1943), 687-93.

Reports data from ninety-four undergraduate and ten graduate institutions concerning graduate enrolment, number of degrees granted, and number of students in special war courses.

579. LEONARD, EUGENIE A. "Present Cost of Education in the Four-Year Women's Colleges," *School and Society*, LVIII (September 4, 1943), 174-75.

Analyzes data gathered from 164 institutions relative to tuition, cost of board and room, and other fees and makes some comparisons with similar charges in men's colleges.

580. LEONARD, EUGENIE A. "The Aims of Higher Education for Women in the United States," *School and Society*, LVIII (October 16, 1943), 295-98.

Comments on the stated aims as found in the catalogues of seventy-four four-year women's colleges and finds that many of the statements are too nebulous to be of value to the faculty and the students.

581. MCCONNELL, T. R., and WILLEY, MALCOLM M. (editors). *Higher Education and the War*. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CCXXXI. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1944. Pp. viii+208.

Brings together seven papers describing current changes and adjustments in higher education due to the war and nineteen papers dealing with postwar problems which may be expected to arise in several areas, including general, liberal, profes-

sional, and adult education, enrolment, counseling, financial support, and statewide planning for higher education.

582. MCGRATH, EARL J., NYSTROM, WENDELL C., and PATIMOS, A. EDWARD. "A Study of Divisional Organization," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXIX (December, 1943), 477-97.

Finds that 150 of 350 colleges were either wholly or partially organized on a divisional basis and that the advantages were: (1) a broad, functional field of concentration, (2) integration of related departments, (3) elimination of duplication, and (4) improvement in administration.

583. MACKENZIE, DONALD M. "Geographical Differences in the Educational Expenditures of North Central Association Colleges and Universities," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVIII (January, 1944), 261-71.

Presents data to show that, as one moves from the eastern to the western part of the territory of the North Central Association, the amount spent for educational purposes decreases. Differences between public and private institutions are pointed out.

584. MACKENZIE, DONALD M., and BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "An Analysis of the Library Data of the Higher Institutions of the North Central Association for the Year 1941-42," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVIII (April, 1944), 293-308.

Reports data concerning the reference-book and periodical holdings, the expenditures for books and salaries, the staff, and the use made of the library.

585. MARSH, C. S. "Research and Graduate Study after the War," *Educational Record*, XXIV (October, 1943), 358-76.

Reports the findings from an inquiry sent to representative graduate schools under the headings: "The Postwar Situation," "Personnel," "Changes in Organization and Operation," and "Influences upon Research."

586. MILLER, J. HILLIS, and BROOKS, DOROTHY V. N. *The Role of Higher Education in War and After*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xii+222.

Considers the impact of the war on colleges and universities and the adjustments necessitated thereby and suggests possible directions in which higher education may move, based on studies made for the state of New York.

587. NASH, ARNOLD S. *The University and the Modern World*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. xxiv+312.

Claims that the modern university is facing an intellectual crisis which can be resolved only by permitting a Christian world view to underlie the specialized subjects of the university curriculum.

588. National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes: Vol. II, *General Studies of Colleges for Negroes*, pp. viii+130; Vol. III, *Intensive Study of Selected Colleges for Negroes* by Lloyd E. Blauch and Martin D. Jenkins, pp. vi+126; Vol. IV, *A Summary* by Ambrose Caliver, pp. iv+50. United States Office of Education, Misc. No. 6, 1943.

Analyzes the provisions for the higher education of Negroes, examines twenty-five Negro institutions in detail, and, in summary, points out present and postwar readjustments necessary at the state and the federal levels.

589. PETERSON, KENNETH M. "An Experiment in Selective Acceleration," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXII (November 10, 1943), 211-16.

Concludes from a study of 108 carefully selected students entering a program of acceleration that health, use of leisure time, and participation in extra-curriculum activities may suffer little in such a program and that the academic achievement of this group will be as satisfactory as that of the nonaccelerated students.

590. PRESSEY, S. L. "Acceleration the Hard Way," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVII (April, 1944), 561-70.

Characterizes attendance during a fourth quarter as a clumsy method of acceleration but finds that students who followed such a method were superior in scholarship and in participation in extra-curriculum activities.

591. PRESSEY, S. L. "Some Data on the Doctorate," *Journal of Higher Education*, XV (April, 1944), 191-97.

Reports a study of the amount of time necessary to earn the Doctor's degree in several fields and argues for the creation of a new degree between the Master's and the Doctor's.

592. PRESSEY, S. L., and COMBS, ARTHUR. "Acceleration and Age of Productivity," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXII (October 13, 1943), 191-96.

Gathers data concerning age of completing education, of beginning life-careers, and of first accomplishment for an early and for a recent group of outstanding persons and suggests that productivity of individuals may be increased if education is completed earlier.

593. PRESSEY, S. L., and FOLK, S. B. "First Evaluations of an Accelerated Program in a College of Engineering," *Journal of Engineering Education*, XXXIV (March, 1944), 477-85.

Finds from an investigation of programs of study at Ohio State University that the academic achievement of accelerated students equals or exceeds that of nonaccelerated students, that accelerated students were somewhat more fatigued, and that the time-saving feature of such programs may be an important feature of postwar education.

594. ROBBINS, RAINARD B. "Adequacy of Benefits under College Retirement Plans," *Association of American Col-*

leges Bulletin, XXIX (December, 1943), 457-76.

Discusses possible methods of modifying retirement plans to meet changing needs and presents examples of possible solutions.

595. ROCHELLE, CHARLES E. "Graduate and Professional Education for Negroes," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIX (January, 1944), 191-205.

Presents data concerning the need and existing provisions for such study, discusses the implications of the Gaines case, and gives nine recommendations for the post-war period.

596. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. *The Finance of Higher Education*. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Bookstore (5802 Ellis Avenue), 1944. Pp. xii+362.

Outlines the problems of the management of business and financial affairs in institutions of higher education and presents the best available solutions to those problems.

597. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE (compiler and editor). *Higher Education under War Conditions*. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1943, Vol. XV. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943. Pp. vi+160.

Presents papers concerning educational opportunities for members of the military forces, experiences of various types of higher institutions with military-training units, and readjustments necessitated by the war that were made by higher institutions.

598. SHANNON, J. R. "Supervision of College Teaching," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIV (October, 1943), 355-58.

Finds that three-fourths of the faculty of a teachers' college favors a program of in-service training but that the majority of the faculty has no clear conception concerning the nature of such a program.

599. SMYTHE, HUGH H., and SMYTHE, MABEL M. "Inbreeding in Negro College Faculties," *School and Society*, LIX (June 17, 1944), 430-32.

Finds from a study of the catalogues of forty-seven institutions that 22.5 per cent of the faculty hold degrees from the institutions in which they teach.

600. STODDARD, GEORGE DINSMORE. *Tertiary Education*. The Inglis Lecture, 1944. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1944. Pp. 36.

Describes a desirable program for the period between secondary and university education.

601. TYLER, RALPH W. "Appraisal of Military Training and Experience," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XVIII (July, 1943), 345-52.

Describes the development of the examination program of the United States Armed Forces Institute.

602. VAN DOREN, MARK. *Liberal Education*. New York: Books, Inc., Distributed by Henry Holt & Co., 1943. Pp. xii+186.

Sets forth a conception of education designed to enable all men to live richly and describes the nature of a college to provide this type of education.

603. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1943," *School and Society*, LVIII (December 25, 1943), 484-94; LIX (February 12, 1944), 100-107.

Analyzes data relative to enrollments in 683 institutions in the autumn of 1943, finding a decrease in civilian students of about 38 per cent from the preceding year. Presents a detailed analysis of the figures for 30 representative universities for purposes of comparison with the figures of the preceding year.

604. WINAKOR, ARTHUR H. "The Faculty Dollar," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIV (November, 1943), 421-25; (December, 1943), 473-76.

Compares the cost of living for wage-earners with that for faculty members in state universities over a thirty-year period and discusses the situation at the University of Illinois.

605. WOODBURN, L. S. "Prospective Usefulness of Staff Members," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXX (May, 1944), 335-46.

Studies the record of thirty men before, and subsequent to, appointment to the associate professorship in an attempt to determine a pattern significant for the prediction of usefulness.

606. WORKS, GEORGE A. "Co-ordination of State-supported Higher Education,"

Journal of Higher Education, XV (March, 1944), 141-45.

Describes some of the forces which have resulted in a multiplicity of state higher institutions and some of the means used to provide better co-ordination.

607. WORKS, GEORGE A. (director). *Report to the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia*. Atlanta, Georgia: Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia, 1943. Pp. 180.

Reports a restudy of the University System of Georgia, emphasizing points at which progress has been made since the first survey in 1932-33 and setting forth recommendations for further improvement.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

CLASS, CASTE, AND INEQUALITIES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION.—Those of us who have been led to believe that our public schools are the embodiment of the democratic spirit, providing equal educational opportunities for all, will have our beliefs somewhat shaken upon reading Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb's recent publication.¹ This very readable book analyzes the extent to which American children actually enjoy equal opportunities in the nation's schools, and it will be of much value to those teachers, administrators, and laymen who are concerned over the problem of mounting inequalities in American education and who would like to get down to the roots of the difficulty. The three authors—an anthropologist and sociologist, an educationist, and a psychologist—have skilfully combined methods and points of view in their respective fields to produce a study which makes a significant contribution to educational literature.

The book is written in eleven concise but specific chapters which deal with the status systems in American society and with the way in which the functioning of these systems is reflected in the policies and practices of the public schools. Examination is made of the way in which these practices, though making it possible for some persons to advance from lower to upper classes in the status systems, prevent the great mass of people from making much improvement, if any, in their statuses. Most of the material reported in the chapters is based on studies of three

sample communities: Hometown, a mid-western community of six thousand people; Old City, a town in the Deep South with a population of thirteen thousand, 50 per cent of whom are Negroes; and Yankee City, a New England town of seventeen thousand. Each of the three classes in American society—upper, middle, and lower, with the various subdivisions of each class—is represented in these three communities.

In the first three chapters the authors describe the organization of the status systems, showing how each pupil, unconsciously or consciously, learns his place in the scheme. Many remain where they are; a few move upward and a few downward through a process referred to as social mobility. To illustrate how social learning operates, the activities of four Hometown boys and a Negro girl of the same community are described. These are middle-class Tom Brown, upper-class Kenneth Peabody, upper-lower-class Joe Sienkowitz, lower-lower-class Bob Jones, and Katherine Green, the Negro girl. To show further how social mobility operates, the authors tell the stories of Mary Dodowsky, daughter of Polish laborers, who utilized sex and beauty as a means of climbing to a near-top position in society, and of frigid Flora Belle, who employed education as a means to climb into an upper-upper-class position in society.

Chapters iv-ix deal with the effect of the status system on organized education and with those factors which prevent the public schools from providing equal educational opportunities for all. The school is seen as a kind of "sorting and selecting agency," the differentiated curriculums for the various social classes and certain classroom practices,

¹ W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated? The Challenge of Unequal Opportunities*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xii+190. \$2.50.

such as the sectioning of grades and the seating of pupils, representing aspects of social segregation. Teachers and administrators utilize their positions in the teaching profession to move upward. They also assume certain responsibilities in perpetuating the class system in the schools and in safeguarding middle-class standards. Superintendents of schools carry out the will of the members of school boards, persons who represent the attitudes and interests of the upper-middle class to which they belong.

Chapter x analyzes the American caste system as it relates to the Negro. Attitudes of both whites and Negroes toward the education of the Negro are considered, as well as the functioning of a class system among the Negroes and its effect on community solidarity in educational matters.

Reference has been made previously to the situation of Katherine Green, the Negro girl of Hometown, the midwestern community. Unlike Katherine, the Negroes in Old City, where caste is most pronounced, are relegated to an inferior segregated school system, which is neither adequate nor efficient. The chapter gives attention to the gross inequalities in the expenditure of public funds for the education of the two races in the South and the difficulties which the Negroes experience in obtaining the meager funds assigned for their education.

In the final chapter, "Who Shall Be Educated?" certain generalizations derived from the facts presented in the previous chapters are discussed. An educational program is proposed which is designed to provide every American boy and girl with equal, if not identical, opportunities for getting an education.

The rather reactionary point of view developed by the authors in this chapter will probably prove both surprising and disappointing to most persons, who will have read the previous chapters as enthusiastically and with as much expectancy as did the reviewer. Two questions persisted throughout the reading: Can equal opportunities in educa-

tion ever be provided in a class and caste system such as ours? Shall not the schools themselves do something to eliminate the apparent evils of a status system which denies Tom Jones and Katherine Green and Joe Sienkowitz and the Negroes of Old City the things which a democracy ostensibly guarantees them? The following excerpt appears to be the authors' answer:

As long as we have our present social structure, education must be adapted to it or we will produce a generation or more of maladjusted children and unhappy adults. The school in America, whether we like it or not, must function to make democracy work in a status system that is only partially equalitarian. Only as our social order changes can the school indoctrinate its pupils with economic and political philosophies of human relationships which are now in sharp conflict with the prevailing social system. The thesis of some educators that American schools should be the instruments of propaganda for a particular type of economic or political thought is wrong and must be discouraged. Although the guiding philosophy of such propagandists may be democratic, the methods advanced are unreal and dangerous. Propaganda education that conflicts with the prevailing mores produces conflict in the lives of those taught and does not provide growing children with a realistic orientation to the social world in which they must compete for a living and for status [p. 143].

The educational program proposed provides for an elementary-school curriculum which should consist of "common content for all" and a secondary school which "should continue the elementary-school program with a common core of 'education for the common life' occupying a third to a half of the school day" (pp. 158-59). Included also in the proposed secondary-school program are suggestions for a period of work service, a program of vocational preparation, terminal vocational courses, and a variety of avocational activities. Concrete suggestions are made also for the organization of the school program. One limitation of the educational program is that it does not go far enough. If it is planned for the existing social system, there still remains Old City with its

ever pressing problem of dual education. The intricacies involved are too well known. How will they be disentangled?

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GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE ARMED FORCES.—An outstanding development of the current world war has been the growth of a vast educational program within American armed services. A large portion of the public realizes that great stress has been placed on technical training for military purposes and on conventional academic courses, such as mathematics and science basic to technical military training; but not many, even among school administrators and teachers, are aware of the great number of general academic courses that are taught within the military forces. Aside from courses offered directly by the Navy and other service divisions, the Armed Forces Institute has developed into a far-flung educational system, having its own textbooks, correspondence courses, and testing services and offering more than sixty-three courses at the high-school level alone.

In the light of this development of education within the services, the American Council on Education early in 1943 appointed a committee to outline a plan for general education which might serve as a guide in the development of educational activities in the armed forces. A printed report¹ makes the findings of the committee available to colleges and secondary schools.

The main content of the report is divided into three parts. Part I includes an introduction dealing with the purposes of the committee, a detailed statement of procedures used, a discussion of the form of the committee's report, and acknowledgments. Part

II is concerned with a detailed outline of the objectives of general education for members of the armed forces, with advisory comment. The material of Part III consists of outlines of the basic courses. A foreword by George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, precedes the main content of the report.

The courses in the proposed program consist of "Personal and Community Health," "Oral and Written Communication," "Problems of Social Adjustment," "Marriage and Family Adjustment," "Development of American Thought and Institutions," "Problems of American Life," "America in International Affairs," "Science," "Literature," "Form and Function of Art in Society," "Music in Relation to Human Experience," "Philosophy and Religion," and "Vocational Orientation." Each course outline is prefaced by a brief introduction, and each contains copious bibliographical material, a separate set of references at times being supplied for each main division of the outline. Explanatory notes are usually interspersed throughout a course outline.

The titles, subheadings, and statements of the course outlines reflect the efforts of the committee to introduce life-centered material into the courses. This is particularly evident in such courses as "Problems of Social Adjustment," where problems of study cover situations in transition from military to civil life that officers and enlisted men are likely to face. The course on art shows the same efforts to bring realism into the program by giving consideration to art in the design of homes, public buildings, and the machine.

The materials are organized in conventional topic-outline form. The readability, and consequently the usability, of the report would have been increased by including the statements of objectives in the course outlines instead of placing them in a separate section of the report. The predominance of topics of information to be acquired over suggestions of activities to be lived gives a strong intellectual bias to the entire program.

¹ *A Design for General Education for Members of the Armed Forces*. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 18. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. viii+186.

The program shows certain limitations which are inherent in efforts to provide true general education within the confines of military forces. General education consists, not in acquiring information about living, but in living successfully, democratically, with one's family and the members of one's community. Whereas conditions in the armed forces have often facilitated, and even led to improvements of, instruction in specialized subjects of an academic or practical nature, the fact that service in the armed forces involves a suspension of normal living seriously inhibits the classroom guidance of the full, democratic living that constitutes general education. Military service, of course, has many activities that contribute to general education, and educational personnel in the armed forces perform a sound and important service when they evaluate such activities and designate their significance and place in the general curriculum.

The course outlines have implications for the secondary school, though this possibility was not stressed in the content of the report. No names of secondary-school workers appear in the membership of the committee or in the large list of consultants. The committee states that "the program is pitched at the educational level of students who normally would be in the last two years of high school or in the first two years of college" and adds that members of the first group "almost certainly will not return to secondary schools" (p. 10).

The report should render special service as a guide to educational workers in the armed forces. It should also serve to acquaint educational workers in civil life with the nature and the place of education within the armed forces. Finally, it should provide source materials for the use of administrators, teachers, and curriculum workers, particularly at the college level.

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A STATE PROGRAM OF TEACHER TRAINING.—In line with the general interest among state school authorities in the improvement of teacher training, the South Carolina State Board of Education authorized a state-wide inquiry concerning the qualifications of the fifteen thousand teachers in the public schools of the state. The results of the inquiry, which was initiated in the autumn of 1942, are presented in four volumes dealing severally with the four fundamental considerations of teacher characteristics, school facilities, teacher training, and certification. The volume on teacher training,¹ which is the subject of this review, includes suggestions for the improvement of teacher-training programs in the twenty colleges within the state where prospective teachers may meet the requirements of certification.

The study of teacher education in South Carolina is, in effect, a study of teacher-training procedures in liberal-arts colleges, there being no teachers' colleges in the state. The report notes some of the familiar problems involved in the co-ordinate administration of academic and professional curriculums in such institutions. For example, members of the professional staffs in these institutions are said to be carrying heavier service loads than are the teachers of academic subjects, the latter appearing to accept little responsibility "in educating teachers beyond subject-matter objectives and semester-hour credits" (p. 50). The further criticism is made that "there is little interchange of ideas and combining of staff resources in solving the teacher-education problems" (p. 51). It is also noted that these colleges are too lenient in the consideration of selective requirements for admission to teacher-training programs. Most significant is the criticism that provision for specific preparation

¹ E. C. Hunter, *Education of Teachers*. Report of the Investigation of Educational Qualifications of Teachers in South Carolina. Columbia, South Carolina: Steering Committee of the Investigation of Educational Qualifications of Teachers in South Carolina, University of South Carolina, 1944. Pp. viii+58. \$0.50.

of elementary-school teachers in the majority of the institutions is quite inadequate.

Suggestions for the improvement of teacher education relate chiefly to methods of correcting the deficiencies which have been noted. In addition, it is proposed that the minimum requirement of eligibility for positions in the elementary schools be raised to four years of college work and that the requirement for high-school positions be raised to five years, including an appropriate increase in the amount of professional course credits in each case. It is suggested that differentiation be made in certification requirements for various types of teaching, such as the teaching of the elementary grades, the teaching of vocational subjects, and the teaching of the major high-school areas, as well as for supervision and administration.

This report will be read with interest by state school officials who are concerned with all phases of teacher education and will be found especially suggestive by administrative officers of liberal-arts colleges in which teacher-training departments are maintained.

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MAKING LITERATURE MORE MEANINGFUL.—That educators are aware of the need for giving high-school boys and girls those contacts which will result in a better insight into actual later life is illustrated by two books in the field of literature which have recently come off the press.¹ A few illustrations will indicate how these books deviate from the mine-run of books in the field.

The first of the two books, *Types of Literature*, rather than beginning with materials representing one of the several types into

which all literature has been divided, opens with a section entitled "Living and Learning," wherein are given selections from American and British authors calculated to interest boys and girls in their own education. The volume then proceeds to take up the various types of literature. Five examples will indicate how the second volume, *Heritage of American Literature*, differs from the common types of books dealing with literature for high-school pupils. (1) No complete novel is included, but, after introductory material, two or three chapters are given from three novels of the twentieth century, followed by excerpts from three of the nineteenth century. (2) The place of magazines in American life, from the earliest ones to those of the present day, is treated in eleven pages, followed by fifteen or more examples of material taken from current publications. (3) Folk literature, which includes selections written by cowboys, lumberjacks, Indians, sailors, and Negroes, occupies a prominent place. (4) Material from Hawaii and from the other Americas, including Mexico, also is given prominent attention. (5) Conditions which throw light on the times during which the author wrote are not taken up at the time that the selection from this author is presented, or, at most, only enough information is given to secure the reader's interest; but Part III, the last seventy pages of the text, is concerned with political and social conditions surrounding each author whose works have already been read. The introduction of such material constitutes a good attempt to make the literature of America more meaningful to high-school students who will soon begin to make their way in the world.

While these two books represent only a part of a series of seven anthologies of literature for junior and senior high schools, they are taken as typical of the whole set. The first volume will not have a place in senior high schools offering separate courses in American, English, and world literature, since the series includes a separate volume

¹ Literature: A Series of Anthologies. *Types of Literature* by E. A. Cross and Neal M. Cross, pp. xii+692, \$2.40; *Heritage of American Literature* by E. A. Cross, Grace A. Benscoter, and William A. Meacham, pp. xvi+750, \$2.60. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944.

for each of these areas; but the variation in school programs over the country, together with the value of *Types of Literature* as a reference work, warrants its publication. Although the material is grouped in this volume under types, such as the short story, the essay, and the poem, a suggested alternate arrangement groups the same selections, with page numbers, under a list of nine titles such as "Democracy," "Achievement," "Love and Friendship." More than half the content of this volume deals with short stories, essays, and full-length plays of American and British authors, while the remainder treats the poem, the one-act play, and the novel.

The authors have followed the modern trend of selecting material largely from modern writers, and two-thirds of the content of the volume on American literature is from the contemporary field. Introductory to each type of literature is a short consideration of its place in the whole field and of what to look for in reading material of that nature. At the conclusion of each type are suggestions for further reading. The meaning of a word or a passage is given at the bottom of

the page on which it occurs, except in plays where it is indicated in the margin. The material has been carefully selected from the point of view of the interests of high-school boys and girls.

The mechanical arrangement of the material is open to the following criticisms: (1) There is no heading at the top of each page to indicate the nature of the material included. (2) The Table of Contents is poorly arranged typographically. (3) The arrangement of the introductory material to each type of literature is not pleasing to the eye.

Considering the activities called for on the part of the pupil, one wonders at times whether the authors had in mind the retention of the best which the reading of that selection should offer; but, considering the nature of the material presented for the pupil's reading and meditation, it is apparent that the field of literature for high-school pupils has been broadened in a manner calculated to insure better and more useful citizens.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

FREUD, ANNA, and BURLINGHAM, DOROTHY.

Infants without Families: The Case for and against Residential Nurseries. New York: International University Press, 1944. Pp. 128. \$2.00.

REDDEN, JOHN D., and RYAN, FRANCIS A.

Freedom through Education. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1944. Pp. xii+204. \$2.50.

SÁNCHEZ, GEORGE I. *The Development of Higher Education in Mexico.* New York: King's Crown Press, 1944. Pp. vi+140. \$1.50.

SIMMONS, KATHERINE. *The Brush Founda-*

tion Study of Child Growth and Development: II. Physical Growth and Development. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IX, No. 1 (Serial No. 37). Washington 25: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1944. Pp. xviii+88. \$1.25.

THAYER, V. T. *American Education under Fire.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. viii+194. \$2.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

GATES, ARTHUR I., and PEARDON, CELESTE
COMEYGS. *Practice Exercises in Reading,*

- Book VI: Type A, *Reading To Appreciate the General Significance of a Selection*, pp. 94; Type B, *Reading To Predict Outcome of Given Events*, pp. 94; Type C, *Reading To Understand Precise Directions*, pp. 94; Type D, *Reading To Note Details*, pp. 94; *Manual of Directions*, pp. 32. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944.
- GATES, ARTHUR I., RINSLAND, HENRY D., SARTORIUS, INA C., and PEARDON, CELESTE COMEGYS. *The Pupils' Own Vocabulary Spellers*: Grade 2, pp. 80, \$0.48; Grade 3, pp. 80, \$0.48; Grade 4, pp. 108, \$0.56; Grade 5, pp. 118, \$0.56; Grade 6, pp. 124, \$0.56; Grade 7, pp. 118, \$0.56; Grade 8, pp. 132, \$0.56. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944.
- Invitation to Reading*, Book Two. Edited by Elmer R. Smith, Marion Edman, and Georgia E. Miller. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1944. Pp. x+534. \$1.72.
- MELBO, IRVING ROBERT; MIEDEMA, MADELINE; and CARLSON, STELLA MAY. *Young Neighbors in South America*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1944. Pp. 400. \$1.60.
- PARKER, J. CECIL; PATTERSON, C. PERRY; and MCALISTER, SAMUEL B. *Citizenship in Our Democracy*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1944 (revised). Pp. x+364. \$1.36.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH; CLARK, JOHN R.; and SMITH, ROLLAND R. *Fundamental Mathematics*: Book One, pp. xiv+368, \$1.00; Book Two, pp. xiv+402, \$1.08. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1944.
- SNIDER, JOHN D. *I Love Books: Why, What, How, and When We Should Read*. Washington: Review & Herald, 1944 (revised). Pp. 574. \$2.50.
- Teacher's Guide to Children's Development in the Language Arts*: Vol. I, Grades I through III, pp. 68, \$1.25; Vol. II, Grades IV through VIII, pp. 127, \$1.25. Bonham, Texas: Bonham Public Schools, 1944.
- THORNDIKE, EDWARD L., and LORGE, IRVING. *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. xii+274. \$2.85.
- PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM
- America Votes, 1944: A Non-partisan Handbook of the 1944 Presidential Election*. New York 17: Scholastic Magazines, 1944. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- Aviation Education in California Public Schools*. Report of California Aviation Education Conference. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XIII, No. 5. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1944. Pp. vi+56.
- CAIN, J. HARVEY. *College Investments under War Conditions*. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series III—Financial Advisory Service, No. 21. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. 40. \$0.40.
- CRANE, EDMUND H. *Industrial and Occupational Trends in New York State*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1271. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press, 1944. Pp. 46.
- A Handbook for Junior Consumer Cooperatives*. Chicago 5: Cooperative League of the U.S.A. (608 South Dearborn Street). Pp. 18. \$0.10.
- HUNTER, E. C. *Education of Teachers*. Report of the Investigation of Educational Qualifications of Teachers in South Carolina. Columbia, South Carolina: Steering Committee of the Investigation of Educational Qualifications of Teachers in South Carolina, University of South Carolina, 1944. Pp. viii+58. \$0.50.
- LITTLE, WILSON. *Spanish-speaking Children in Texas*. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1944. Pp. 74.
- The Place of Reading in the Elementary School Program*. Prepared by the Division of Instructional Research. Educational Research Bulletin No. 7 of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics. New

- York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1944. Pp. iv+44.
- Planning for American Youth: An Educational Program for Youth of Secondary-School Age.* A Summary of Education for All American Youth, a Publication of the Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. Washington 6: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1944. Pp. 64. \$0.25.
- SEAY, MAURICE F., and MEECE, LEONARD E. *Planning for Education in Kentucky.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XVII, No. 1. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1944. Pp. 132. \$0.50.
- So You Are a School Board Member: Introducing the School Board Book Shelf.* Pamphlet No. 1 of the School Board Reference Library. Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Association of School Boards (First National Bank Building), 1944. Pp. 20.
- The Teacher Situation in Indiana.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XX, No. 5. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, School of Education, Indiana University, 1944. Pp. 38. \$0.50.
- Today's Children for Tomorrow's World: A Guide to the Study of the Child from Infancy to Six.* A Manual for Study with Suggestions to Group Leaders. Prepared by Aline B. Auerbach for the staff of the Child Study Association of America in co-operation with the American Association of University Women. New York 19: Child Study Association of America, Inc., 1944. Pp. 24. \$0.30.
- TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *The Improvement of Study Habits and Skills.* Educational Records Bulletin No. 41. New York 19: Educational Records Bureau (437 West Fifty-ninth Street), 1944. Pp. 38.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, Showing the Operations, Expenditures, and Condition of the Institution for the Year Ended June 30, 1943.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. xii+610. \$2.00.

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